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CURRICULUM PLANNING IN CROSS-CULTURAL  
SETTINGS--PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

Nancy MacKenzie

A Thesis

in

The Department

of

Education

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of Master of Arts at  
Concordia University  
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## ABSTRACT

### CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN CROSS-CULTURAL SETTINGS--PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

Nancy MacKenzie

Curriculum development is always a complex process, bringing together political, economic, social and pedagogical considerations. In cross-cultural or Third World settings, the complexity of this process is greatly compounded. In countries such as Zimbabwe, the locus of this work, one must also take into consideration the effects of colonial history on indigenous values and educational practices, persistent impoverishment of educational resources, and serious lags in teacher training. This thesis is intended as a reflective examination of the planning process of the content for a media studies course for teachers enrolling in a new bachelor programme in early childhood education at the University of Zimbabwe. As the course was developed over an 18 month period, field tested and revised, a number of principles emerged which may prove to be useful findings for others engaged in similar work. The most significant principles may be that for curriculum development to be effective, one must deal with uncertainties, take risks, be sceptical and see knowledge as socially constructed. Further, it appears that curriculum will only be implemented as intended when those who are in charge of the instruction process take full partnership in its development from the outset.

But certainly for the present age, which prefers the **sign** to the thing signified, the **copy** to the original, **fancy** to reality, the **appearance** to the essence, this change, inasmuch as it does away with illusion, is an absolute annihilation, or at least a reckless profanation; for in these days **illusion** only is sacred, *truth profane*.

Ludwig Feuerbach, **The Essence of Christianity**, 1843

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## PREFACE: ORIGINS OF THE OPPORTUNITY TO DEVELOP THE COURSE

1988 marked the beginning of a series of fascinating cross-cultural educational experiences for me, firstly in a small Inuit community in Northern Quebec, followed by three years in Southern African schools. Teaching Junior Certificate and O Level English courses in rural African settings presented a number of unanticipated challenges--not the least of which was to produce satisfactory, if not exceptional, national examination results. The English syllabus, although modified by the use of African stories, to a large extent remained culturally discordant with the traditional informal learning contour of a rural population. The students' enthusiasm far outweighed their academic preparation. Large class sizes, time-consuming paperwork for the Ministry of Education, and the wide range of abilities and background all contributed to the testing of my stamina. However, the frustration of teaching under such circumstances provided an incentive to explore the origins of the use of foreign curricula, and the reasons for the widespread endorsement of Western models of curricula in Third World countries throughout the world.

I subsequently began taking graduate courses in the Department of Education at Concordia University in educational studies--focussing on cross-cultural pedagogical issues. While there, I had the opportunity to meet two visiting

scholars from Zimbabwe. Their presence at Concordia University had been facilitated by a CIDA funded Concordia-University of Zimbabwe linkage project. My interest in the project stemmed from the challenges I had encountered during a three year teaching stint in Southern Africa, which had created a wish for better understanding of curriculum and the implications of cultural invasion in the field of education. The mission of the CIDA-Concordia project is to increase the competency of local scholars to offer a Bachelor of Education programme at the University of Zimbabwe in the area of early childhood education teacher training.

The history of educational development in Zimbabwe is long and complex. At independence in 1980, additional teacher training opportunities were developed as a move towards universal access to education. One of the programmes instituted at the time was ZINTEC, Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher Education Course, where primary teacher education programmes were made available through an intensive short term (16 week) academic course. After that initial theoretical introduction, students were "assigned to schools where they taught a full load while following supervised distance education courses for more than three years" (Dorsey, Matshazi and Nyagura, 1991, p. 92). The success of this programme and the chronic shortage of teachers led to the expansion of the format of that programme to other teacher training centres. The need for



qualified teachers, however, could not be met by even these expanded resources. This scarcity, plus the many developments in early childhood education in the ensuing fourteen years, led scholars at the University of Zimbabwe and Concordia University to seek effective means to upgrade the teaching skills and academic levels of some teachers already in the system. These teachers are unqualified, yet are held responsible for the education of children during the critical learning period of ages three to eight.

A CIDA funded linkage between the two universities was then established. The mission of the cooperative effort was to develop courses for an early childhood education bachelor degree for teacher trainers, who, in turn, would dispense their expertise to a widely scattered population of early childhood teachers. The early childhood programme would be assisted in its implementation by improving skills of University of Zimbabwe scholars, and by using the expertise of some Concordia University faculty members to initiate the new courses.

An extensive amount of research material pointed to media science as an important adjunct to the core group of foundations and methodology courses. The University of Zimbabwe early childhood specialist, Ms. Chipso Marira, outlined the basic content of such a course--stressing first

and foremost the role of modern technological media in the classroom. When she had completed her mandate in Canada the course was only in a rudimentary outline form, so I was recruited to develop a media science course for trainers of teachers of young children. Initially I was skeptical about the value and appropriateness of focussing on technically complex media knowledge in a setting where a high percentage of rural teachers have no schools or electricity, let alone computers and videos. Nevertheless, as a curriculum developer, it is essential to be open and flexible and to permit the research data and the expressed needs of the learners to determine the direction the course takes. No particular curriculum development procedure provided guidelines. Rather, this thesis elaborates how each stage of the curriculum formulation process was evaluated in an attempt to refine the course to construct the most useful programme of study for the students.

## CURRICULUM PLANNING IN CROSS-CULTURAL SETTINGS--PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS

### INTRODUCTION: SCOPE AND PURPOSE

The design of curricula for cross-cultural settings, including developing countries, presents a special challenge. Because context has been recognized as the critical starting point from which all educational programmes are built, it is of interest to educators to examine the role of context in the transfer of curricula from industrialized to less developed environments. Two factors may influence the successful implementation of the most carefully developed programmes: first, the dynamic and unpredictable nature of localized settings, particularly in developing countries, and, secondly, the tendency to resist change. There may be limited application as well due to the inherent complexity of contexts. From the time of the Phelps-Stokes (1962) recommendations for indigenized education in the 1920s to the present day research by planners such as Baine and Mwamwenda (1994), the search continues for an approach which can best "assist the evolution of education in Southern Africa." (p.126)

The framework for the design of curricula has traditionally consisted of an objective, linear and rational approach intended to satisfy the rigorous, "scientific" instructional methods required of professional educators.

These descriptions of a design thus suggest the existence of formulae for defining input and results. Such an approach denies the complexity of the schooling process, especially as it occurs in most developing regions of the world. In particular, because of the rapid social and technological changes occurring throughout the world, curriculum formation requires an approach that builds in adaptability in the face of uncertainty.

Particularly problematic in the design of teacher training programmes in developing countries is how to decide what they need to know in order to deal effectively with available resources, and at the same time prepare students for a changing world. There is a dramatic gap between the theories learned in the universities and colleges and the realities of the classroom in our western educational institutions. This gap is magnified many fold when curricula are transferred to developing countries where materials are scarce. Major technological changes are often endorsed by curriculum planners for these developing education systems, despite the fact that Third World contexts are radically different from the western countries in which the technological advances were designed. In addition, traditions in developing countries often reflect an understanding of natural events which is at variance with western scientific explanations. At the same time, the daily existence of the

rural population appears to be firmly grounded on "scientific" agricultural practices. These seeming contradictions must be explored as they are significant factors in evaluating the context for which curricula are designed. There is no disputing the disparity that exists between the cultural experience of the child and the essentially western content and methodologies that are presented in the classroom. The use of local media for connecting the child to the school environment may provide the platform upon which meaningful learning may occur.

The central questions that the thesis will address are as follows:

1. What is the relationship between culture, the curriculum, and learning?
2. How can the western curriculum remain true to its values and foundations while also responding to the curricular issues that arise from cultural contact and conflict?
3. How can the norms of culturally diverse worlds become clearer and more acceptable to each other, thus improving communication and permitting teachers to be more effective in setting up a learning atmosphere?
4. Can the ideal of universal literacy, in the western sense of functional literacy and numeracy, be reasonably appropriated in diverse socio-cultural contexts?

5. How can the school work to eliminate the chronic disjunction that exists between what is taught in developing country schools and the cultural experience that the child brings to school?

A considerable body of research has accumulated concerning these problems, but the solutions are more elusive--some crucial questions remain unanswered. Basing my research questions on the personal experience of teaching in rural African and Quebec schools, as well as considerable reflective thought and academic research since, it appears that what is available in the written symbolic environment of the African child offers a tool with which to bring together the culture of the school and that of the home.

Reflections on the pedagogical implications of the teacher training curriculum for both teachers and their future students have been documented in a journal article, by Gordana Vukadinovic (1986). In this paper she outlines both the philosophical rationale and the appropriate training strategies in media studies for teacher education programmes. Her design combines the development of a reflective interaction between the student and the media environment (on both denotative and connotative levels of meaning) with the acquisition of specific skills in analysis and production. The emphasis is on fine-tuning the processes which lead to an

understanding of the different roles that media may play--in determining firstly, the meaning one derives from the concrete world, and secondly, the interpretation attached to the world by way of conventions created and controlled by the media.

There is an ongoing discussion about whether media studies should be concerned with learning to use media, or using media to learn. It is also debatable whether media studies can be considered a distinct discipline or is simply a set of plans which assist the teacher in the development and use of media in the classroom. Vukadinovic has proposed a simple, unpretentious approach to eradicate the dichotomy: through critical analysis of media, teachers and students can engage in meaningful learning tasks. The study of media has, furthermore, been simplified by reducing the analysis to manageable segments of study. The various types of media messages can be analyzed using pictures, which are universal "communicative units" (Vukadinovic, 1986) of media.

The multiple layers of meaning underlying all media messages, (because of their individualized social, cultural, emotional, political and educational impact in different settings), indicates the need for a multidisciplinary, holistic approach to their study. The relevant disciplines include sociology, psychology and cultural studies, along with literacy in the visual domain, and an approach which Harris

(1993) refers to as an integrated, deliberative perspective. It is generally agreed that media education is a multi-faceted study. In this regard it demonstrates clearly the extensive discipline bases required for educators to launch curriculum development projects which are always circumscribed by the particular sociocultural context.

In an attempt to eliminate the disparity between theory and practice, one needs to have teachers in training deliberate upon their own "sociocultural textbooks"--that is, on ways they can draw upon their own personal experiences with the environment in order to create meaningful learning resources for their particular classroom. Simply stated, the mission is to enable teachers to translate their students' experiences into cultural capital. The approach which shows promise in fulfilling this mission involves an integrated, deliberative, critical pedagogy.

A current trend in the education of young children relates to the so-called 'integrated' curriculum (Spodek, 1991). Briefly, this refers to the organization of the curriculum based on subject integration rather than specialization, research studies having shown that young children learn holistically and only later begin to organize knowledge into discrete parts (Hauser-Cram, Pierson, Walker and Tivnan, 1991; Robinson and Schwartz, 1982). Media studies



is recognized as a valuable tool for developing thematic studies in an increasingly complex and information-laden world. The extent to which the mass media permeate all areas of human endeavour in this technical age is unquestionably large. To omit the study of media in all its forms from the teacher training curriculum would be both irresponsible and unrealistic. By its very use of multiple disciplines, media studies provides an excellent vehicle for communicating to teachers the meaning of the integrated curriculum.

It is thus from a holistic framework that this thesis will report on the principles which surfaced during the process of the development of a curriculum in media science<sup>1</sup> for early childhood teacher trainers in Zimbabwe.<sup>2</sup> The fact that this course has been developed specifically for early childhood trainers provides a case in point for the broader issue and study of curriculum development in the Third World. It is in this regard that the thesis lies within the domain of Educational Studies.

Media products range from the simple images which are found in signs and illustrations to complex computer-generated messages. A media science curriculum must be able to provide skills to analyze these varied messages as well as adapt to different sociocultural contexts. Visual literacy

proved to be the discipline which could encompass both indigenous and Western media forms.

Visual literacy studies, which give experience with visuals and their referents in the training process of teachers, lead to the understanding of visual symbols which are fundamental to the comprehension of written text. Students learn to understand images just as they learn to read language text; images have their own syntax, grammar and phonics. Visual analysis is comparable to that of literary analysis, enabling the reader to determine how graphic meanings are construed. In visual literacy programmes, critical analysis strategies and production combine to provide the skills and incentive to understand the manipulation of the environment by the media. A hands-on component is indicated in media science--to develop and practise ways to communicate skills effectively to students. As well, the stress on production in media education equips teachers to understand the ambiguous nature of visuals in society. The practical component allows them to experience the changes in meaning which occur as a result of the modifications they make to their own image creations. Through analysis and production processes, cultural conventions surface. The awareness of manipulation, whether for censorship, propaganda, control or information, empowers the learner to determine intentions and meaning. The aim of the course, through the practical

exercises and their theoretical basis, is to increase the level of competency for students in their critical appraisal of media, and to enable teachers to use this new awareness in the development of teaching materials for the classroom.

#### METHODOLOGY

The methodology of curriculum development can follow an essentially qualitative model, or focus on the "narrow notion of the mission of the school as the mere transmission of basic knowledge" (Tanner, 1992, p.9)--a fundamentally technoscientific model. Perhaps most realistically, the methodology followed could represent a synthesis of the two models. The curriculum developer begins with a problem or set of questions to be answered. In this case the main question centered on how best to assist in educational planning for teachers who must deal with two recent changes in their environment which affect the strategies they employ. Firstly, indigenous educators have taken over the responsibility for curriculum planning from their colonial predecessors. Secondly, these educators need to adjust to rapid technological and communication advances which ultimately will affect Southern African social and school environments.

The curriculum developer must also be concerned with how teachers can learn to respond to new developments in educational thinking and practices. In terms of formulation,

a planner must decide what sort of course or programme of study might respond to these needs, so this phase is implicitly set in the context of relevant prior experiences. A library research for existing models of similar curricula can provide the theoretical framework for deliberation. Of commonly discussed curricular models (the essentialism of Plato, encyclopaedism of Comenius, polytechnism of Marx and pragmatism of Dewey) outlined in Holmes and McLean (1989), the development of the media studies course drew most heavily on the Marxist model inasmuch as the objectives are rooted in social and technological change. The course is also pragmatic, however, in its focus on individualism and critical inquiry. The third methodological phase sees the active construction of a course based on the results of the completed literature research. The fourth stage is the field testing of format and content in a variety of settings. The implementation of the course includes making revisions from the feedback, which completes the development process.

#### ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

The first section of the thesis describes the development pattern which any course should follow through an extensive search of the literature. The author's journey through the literature became more focussed with the uncovering of an article which outlined a curriculum model for media studies specifically designed for teachers.<sup>3</sup> Some studies demonstrated

the influences of media on behaviour and attitudes, while other readings were related to a critical inquiry into the nature of the impact of environmental print, symbols and other visual phenomena on the young child and the relevance of this knowledge to teacher education.

The thesis provides an account of the historical and cultural context for which the media course was developed. The author's firsthand knowledge of the teaching and learning environment of the Southern African child helped to point to an exploration of cross-cultural differences in perception of media--an exploration of conventions, responses to various genres, and the successes and failures of Third World development projects which have made use of traditional western models of curriculum design and educational methodologies. The differences between the western and African child's experience with media will be highlighted, along with a discussion of the importance of taking these differences into account when planning a course of study that will prepare teachers adequately for the complexities of teaching an essentially western model of curriculum in an African setting. A curriculum must be flexible enough to allow teachers to relate the content and process of instruction to the past and ongoing experiences of students, that is to place significant weight on a diversity of

perceptions in order to effectively connect to the individual.

Chapter One delineates the theoretical rationale for media in education. Chapter Two of the thesis examines some curricular models. The principles described in these models express many of the same guidelines used in the planning of the media course. There are two basic schools of curriculum planning which can serve in a variety of contexts: technical-scientific and humanistic. A synopsis of the principles of curriculum development from these two perspectives and how they link to literacy and media in particular is included in the literature review. Chapter Three outlines the historical role of curriculum development in developing countries, with special reference to the traditional function of media in Africa. Chapter Four discusses the particulars of the principles that emerged as most productive, upon reflection on the process of development of the media science course. The thesis concludes with an assessment of some of the difficulties encountered in curriculum development for cross-cultural settings and problems yet to be resolved, and proposes some adjustments which could resolve some of these issues.

The appendix contains a provisional copy of the course outline, lesson plans, samples of workshop assessment forms and their results, and comments of workshop participants.

## CHAPTER ONE: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON THE SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

In the introductory chapter of this paper, mention was made of the interdisciplinary nature of media science. Specialists in communications appreciate the diversity of foci, inputs and influence which must be included in media studies to be considered a legitimate discipline. The role of media in the dissemination of information, values, attitudes and beliefs has increased tremendously in recent years. They provide the vehicle for translating the human consequences of various social practices (meaning the social consequences of political, scientific and technological decisions which effect changes in the way the world is presented) into communicable units. Media science, in its most simplistic role, represents a way of organizing, sharing and understanding the linkage and dynamic interaction between culture, curriculum and learning. The theoretical framework for discussing the social implications of the role of media is the subject of this chapter.

Because of the incontestably extensive influence media exert on our daily lives and intrude upon learning content and processes, their inclusion in a learning package is a *sine qua non*. As well, it is fundamental to all learning that one be provided with skills to decode the plethora of sensory meanings in this complex, rapidly changing society. The



complement to attaining competency in reading skills is that individual students be equipped to encode in a language that can be deciphered in the larger society. Full and comprehensive literacy involves communication based on the interaction of encoding and decoding, connotation and denotation. It includes, as well, the key understanding that all meaning is socially defined; isolated knowledge has no social jurisdiction--knowledge is socially negotiated. Aikenhead (1987) describes the general impact of literacy as empowering students to construct meaning and make informed critical decisions based on the exploration, integration and interpretation of knowledge within their own cultural context. In any discussion of curriculum, a linear, scientific perspective obviates its central position as a sociocultural phenomenon.

Sociology interprets perceived relationships, interactions and roles of the individual and groups in society. Any analysis of cooperation, conflict and competition, i.e. the various types of interaction an individual can engage in, must include the role which media play in shaping our perceptions of these interactions, and of shaping the interactions themselves. One must examine to what extent media determine the various social roles we take on--and, of foremost importance in the development of the media science course, how media shape the roles of young children

and their teachers in their primary interactions within the society.

Many attempts have been made to explain the relationship between the school and society: as dependent, tangential or independent affiliations. In effect these various approaches define and characterize the nature of educational experiences in terms of conflict, exclusion or confrontation. As the school impacts on an individual there is the tendency to exclude the student from the larger political and social world. There are certainly consistent patterns of inequality in society in the distribution of control--variously based on wealth, education, profession or political role. One theory of the function of the school is that it perpetuates the hierarchical structure of social classes and reproduces them. Functionalist, correspondence and conflict theories are the three major schools which interpret the educational process as a sociological phenomenon. Schools can also be seen as a microcosm of the larger culture, deliberately reinforcing differences, by catering to a population whose cultural capital is restrictive. Schools can be the ideologically contrived medium for rationalizing a structure of dominance--an interpretation of a portion of the role that they play in society. Yet none of these explanations is comprehensive enough to represent school effects in total. Radical theories that address differentials in educational access are closely

tied to political power. These theories suggest that schools are the means to reproduce cultural and social capital that maintain the status quo--protecting the agenda of privileged or powerful groups (and thus reinforcing inequality), so the way out of this cycle of domination is to address the specific practices that educational politics prescribe to prevent the widespread accumulation of middle class cultural capital. Traditional status groups who maintain economic, social and political power can be challenged and replaced if the language of communication is democratized to make public participation a reality. This is the essence of a pedagogy of possibility.

A curriculum developer can look at educational failure from a cross-cultural perspective to analyze the role of the school in society. What is assumed to be an explanation of failure in one context may well prove unverifiable in another. What has become increasingly clear is that developing countries do not have the same patterns and qualities of educational failure as those experienced in western countries with ostensibly the same curriculum. This is reason enough to discount the general applicability of some deficiency theories. Certainly genetic or economic deficiency is an inappropriate gauge with which to measure inequalities in economic, class, cultural and political control in Third World countries whose successful student population is at the bottom end on a "western" scale of measures of power--politics,

social status and money. The reality is that these measures of power are incapable of predicting educational achievement.

The deficiency theories proposed by sociologists throughout the last century in an attempt to explain inadequacies in the education system propose that school failure can be attributed to genetic differences, sociocultural variations and/or economic disparities. These hypotheses have proven inadequate as there are large numbers of exceptions--economically deprived groups who achieve, isolated cultures that produce highly competent professionals, and different ethnic groups who prove comparable to academics throughout the world. Although theories such as those of Bowles and Gintis, Marx and Purcell have certainly added new and interesting discourse which stimulates even more discussion in the area of the sociology of education, their reproductive and deficiency theories do not provide a prescription for educational programming that will assure positive outcomes.

How the social interactions of conflict, cooperation or competition are interpreted is directly dependent upon the agenda of the interpreter. The psychologist may seek an intrapsychic explanation; the sociologist investigates interpersonal roles, while the scientist seeks a rational, quantifiable explanation.

The empowerment of students in the Freire sense of being able to participate as an informed and articulate population in the mainstream of society requires that tools be provided to decipher the ethical or normative repercussions of scientific decisions. Empowerment, further, has to do with making full use of knowledge--being in control of knowledge in so far as one is enabled to recognize limitations to quantified explorations for humanistic applications. Knowledge without meaning and relevance is not worthwhile knowledge. Literacy and empowerment in this framework go hand in hand, as the goals are to control one's own destiny, relate knowledge to one's own context and provide interpretations that connect science, technology and human values. Traditionally, however, the institution of education has been judged as contributing to development on the simple basis of measured outcomes. National literacy levels have become indices of development and progress. The inaccuracy of this index is dramatically evident in the ongoing crises felt by western nations that boast of 100% literacy, contrasted with some developing country models that have a grasp of what is meant by critical/conceptual literacy (Aronowitz & Giroux, 1993).

In particular, the contrasting experiences of curriculum development in Tanzania and Papua New Guinea dramatically illustrate how school-based curriculum development is dependent upon a centralized support system, and that the

implementation process must be sensitized to specific local contexts. In the introduction of the reform policy at the school level, the aim, in both cases, was to integrate practical and academic study in secondary schools. This, it was thought, could overcome elitist notions of academic schooling and cut down on the migration from rural to urban areas.

The reforms sought to provide education appropriate to the rural population of both countries, although the strategies and sociocultural contexts were quite different. In Tanzania the education for self-reliance reforms were imposed, rural life and manual labour were looked upon with contempt, and the academic examination system was in direct conflict with the goals of an agrarian, technically oriented programme. By contrast, the policy in Papua New Guinea was compatible with existing cultural and educational practices, for example, the existence of agriculture and manual training in the curriculum. Implementation was timed to retrain both the public and the teachers in pedagogy, subject content and an inquiry-oriented teaching method. Other experiences which point to the need for consultation have been chronicled in Nigeria and the Ivory Coast. The introduction of educational television was meant to replace the teacher. Exorbitant costs, foreign generation and implementation, deplorable examination results, and lack of public preparation,

responsibility and consultation (Ajayi-Dopemu, 1985) led teachers to protest, and the programme was liquidated.

The promotion, implementation and support of a curriculum that has been developed in a culturally different context may include a very different political agenda as well, one that subtly overpowers. Freire (1988) states that all domination involves invasion--at times physical and overt, at times camouflaged, with the invader assuming the role of a helping friend. In the last analysis, invasion is a form of economic and cultural domination (p.134).

Cultural invasion as expressed here by Freire is a powerful tool which secures the dominance of the elite class by undermining the culture of the oppressed (invaded). The acceptance of the inauthenticity of their own culture leads to an urgency to imitate the culture of the dominators to fill the void, and the oppressed are easily convinced of their intrinsic inferiority. Freire uses institutionalized education as an example of how cultural invasion is used; firstly, deliberately as an instrument of domination by repeating the pattern and mythologies of the larger society, and secondly, as a reflection of a reality: that the oppressed are, in fact, products of domination.

In some Third World countries the great masses of people in an oppressive situation can mobilize to initiate change through dialogical action, which involves the integration of action and reflective activities. It is a dynamic process whereby the oppressed, (who invariably reject their culture and embrace the culture of the empowered) live through a resolution of their own unconventional knowledge, which is their cultural heritage, to a critical breakthrough which Freire sees as the mission of pedagogy. The prescription Freire (1988) suggests for breaking the vicious circle is to dissect examples of "vulnerability of the oppressor so that a contrary conviction can begin to grow within them." (p.46) All changes come from the bottom up, through "problem-posing" education where critical perceptions of the world meet the role and functions of the individual. In developing countries, where western educational models have blatantly failed to provide economic development, social progress or cultural capital, critical pedagogy is making inroads through the rejection of these models and demanding democratic development and implementation.

A medium can influence the use to which it is put, but cannot explicitly determine how any individual will in fact respond to it (Morgan & Welton, 1992). The increased facility of the individual to be in the driver's seat with respect to any given medium is a characteristic of literacy. One further



objective of media studies is to facilitate and maximize communication through the promotion of visual literacy. In the process of doing exercises in reading visual texts which become progressively complicated, the subtleties of texts and the conventions understood become more sophisticated. This comprehension is gradually assimilated, and becomes an individual's personal repertoire of techniques for interpretation. The more complexity that can be read, the greater communication is deemed possible. Masterman (1990) found that

questions of power, of choice, of values and of attitudes, are woven into communication processes. Politics, then, rather than aesthetics, is at the heart of the function of media and media education. Even the young child must be empowered to discern covert practices with which the media are submerged. (p.4)

Media analysis is a tool which allows the population to forge explanations for cultural and social anomalies that are indicative of inequality.

Functionalist theorists view educational institutions as micro businesses or factories. From this perspective the school child must be skilled in the technologies of the time, which in the western world involve electronic communications. The level of competency attained to function in this medium

can be considered a reflection of the individual's ability to manipulate and comprehend complex technology in the social, economic and political context. Literacy in the technically basic media is indispensable in achieving this goal, by laying the groundwork for the reading of a variety of texts. Through proficiency with technical machines, the meritocratic hypothesis proposes, differentials in opportunity will disappear (Hurn, 1978).

Radical Marxist theory proposes that technological expertise amongst the masses be the key to breaking down the traditionally elitist power hierarchy. Schools have traditionally helped to perpetuate the structure of domination of the elite over the masses, accentuating differences in social classes. If given the tools to appropriate critically the best of their culture, history and experiences, the mass of people who occupy the lower class could empower themselves by combining the practical with the theoretical. In this praxis, media studies is both powerful and pivotal as an instrument for communal dissemination of needs, rights and realities. Enabling students to create and appraise communication and information sources critically is a major step towards overcoming inequalities. Destroying inequalities in the area of access to information is itself empowering.

The radical pedagogy espoused by Paulo Freire, using reflexive discourse, makes the existing limitations in the scope of powersharing broader and more flexible--extending from capitalistic, cultural or political reproduction boundaries to encompass "cultural politics." He insists that the form and content of knowledge, as well as the social practices through which it is appropriated be seen as part of an ongoing struggle over what counts as legitimate culture and forms of empowerment. He validates and challenges the cultural experiences that make up the historical and social particulars that constitute the cultural forms and boundaries that give meaning to the lives of students, towards the creation of an articulate public. To this end, a critical examination of the uses, limitations, restrictions, practices and policies of various media becomes the definitive process for framing knowledge. To heighten consciousness of the power of media to control, one need only analyze the limited access granted the general public to acquire the skills needed to create media at the present time, particularly in developing countries.

In Western countries "popular culture" has had a major impact on social interactions--influencing behaviour in terms of dress, speech patterns, roles in the family, roles in school and recreation patterns, as well as appearing to minimize distinctions amongst racial, ethnic, class, age,

economic and social groups. To place emphasis on media education studies is to respond to a deficiency in the curriculum, and consequently in the larger society, where one can then exercise some control over popular culture. Media education may emerge as the discipline which will fertilize and nurture the society in its struggle for equality. This point of view has been framed on the assumption that knowledge will empower the student to determine, or at least critically assess, the quality and direction of many social interactions.

Education can take many forms, some more formal than others. Speech, posters, public meetings, songs, stories, theatre and radio have traditionally been successful media for sensitizing or motivating the public. History seems to dictate, moreover, that the more successful campaigns, whether they be informative or stimulating, are multimedia campaigns--the more techniques employed, the more successful. From as early as Comenius the value of combining media to maximize communication of intended meaning became apparent. This validates the premise that a variety of contexts (including essentially learning styles and ability levels) must be addressed by the use of a variety of media.

Mass media such as newspapers, books and radio have played a major role in disseminating information, ideas, and attitudes. Some of the problems that accompany cross-cultural

media use are related to inadequate feedback on the effects of messages sent, a failure to assess whether the behaviour resulting was that desired or expected, and a neglect of the context and the infrastructures which help determine effects (Hamadache & Martin, 1986). Through media studies teachers learn to reduce these effects by discovering how to dissect multiple meanings of messages, assessing outcomes and individualizing content to the setting.

A degree of flexibility must be built into any curriculum to deal with the different characteristics of learners in terms of their background experience with the content. A media package designed for any target group must be able to capture many different aptitudes and competencies and move them to satisfactory levels of self-awareness. Teacher trainers can impart their knowledge to teachers who then maximize the use of prior experiences to develop an awareness of media in the learning environment for the individual classroom child. A multi-pronged course can address itself equally to students and teachers at all levels of the educational experience. It must essentially embody flexibility that confirms the uniqueness of each individual. The complexity of the process suggests that the individual must be the composer, director, producer and performer in the acquisition and application of knowledge, (Schramm, 1977) so

that decisions which the curriculum developer makes are not definitive, clearcut ones with predictable ramifications.

Essentially, then, curricula which will work for learners must concentrate firstly on maximizing communication. Students who have the tools to discourse effectively have control over their learning. Institutionalized schooling has focussed on the three c's of conflict, competition and cooperation to interpret and rationalize its role in society. By responding to a group in this manner, what the school does is alienate the process of learning from the individual. Simplistic theories deny the dynamic, interactive, unpredictable, and changing nature of both students and knowledge, and are limited by their own utilitarian or conservative policies. These ideas fail to recognize the perpetual remodelling of meaning which is an essential ingredient of the learning process. The individual and the culture are inextricably and inevitably interwoven with the development of curriculum.

## CHAPTER TWO: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND MEDIA

The sense in which curriculum development relies on context can be understood through the description of the priorities educators must consider when planning. First and foremost, developers since Plato have traditionally looked at the cognitive characteristics of learners and their level of physical maturation. These characteristics are, in turn, dependent upon the physical and social context of the individual, including nutrition, health and family support systems, which invariably affect learning styles and capabilities. The family is itself situated in a larger socio-political frame which may further define its enterprises. Curriculum development, then, as a contextually defined and circumscribed activity, becomes a very complex exercise.

In its educational applications it is most appropriate to refer to the original spirit of the word "*curriculum*" as employed by Cicero, used in conjunction with the word *vitae* as "the course of one's life." This approach assumes a particular view of educational planning. It reflects , according to Ornstein and Hunkins (1993) a

metaorientation, encompassing the foundations of curriculum (the person's philosophy, view of history, view of psychology and learning theory, and view of social issues), domains of curriculum

(common and important knowledge within the field), and the theoretical and practical principles of curriculum. An approach expresses a viewpoint about the development and design of curriculum, the role of the learner, teacher, and curriculum specialist in planning curriculum, the goals and objectives of the curriculum, and the important issues that need to be examined.

A curriculum approach reflects our views of schools and society...(p.1)

Curriculum models have tended to swing with prevailing changes in the larger society, responding variously to demands for skills in the workplace, (as exemplified by the reproductive model during the industrial revolution), to the humanist, individually constructed learning model which is oriented in a social rather than production context (Pratt, 1994). A multitude of taxonomies, or ways to classify and describe the meaning of curriculum have been proposed. As we articulate some of these models through an historical perusal, some developmental guidelines for the course at hand will be uncovered.

A study of curriculum development historically can help reveal some principles which form the framework, give the direction and provide the rationale for developing future



effective curricula. In some of the early models of curriculum development, emphasis was placed on (1) making an analysis of students and the society (along with input from specialists) to determine objectives, and (2) defining the path which effectively realizes the objectives. Cornbleth (1990) sees the "production model" of Tyler, for example, as limited by some questionable assumptions--firstly, that curriculum is value-free. Secondly, this approach sees knowledge as composed of discrete, tangible components. Thirdly, curriculum, in this view, can be constructed in a linear sequence. Finally, the attainment of objectives can be quantitatively assessed. The material of the curriculum was, therefore, virtually "teacher-proof". Although Tyler emphasized that the product or blueprint is broad, the selection of objectives is based on complex social norms. Tanner & Tanner, (1990)<sup>4</sup> emphasize the dynamic nature of learning, and the focal role of teachers in making innovations in the classroom.

The technical-scientific models of curriculum development have in common a blueprint approach, in which the education package is put together systematically, predictably and empirically using scientific principles and procedures. Activities are selected from a large body of options to best provide experiences amenable to evaluation. The content of curricula is dependent upon the objectives. Cornbleth (1991)

provides a summary of the positions of the definitive writers in the field of curriculum. In her book she states that Bobbitt and Charters, and later Tyler, proposed a planning strategy for curriculum which focusses in the first stage of inquiry on obtaining facts about the learners, subject and society. This search reveals what objectives should be taught, depending upon the philosophical perspective of the planners and the theory of learning that is being adhered to. This approach sees a developmental sequence to experiences that can be injected with organizing concepts and skills that can be objectively evaluated. Cornbleth (1991) points out that Taba developed a similar model, but reversed the order of planning. Compared to Tyler's top-down model, ideas, in her scheme, would be generated from the grassroots--i.e., by teachers (Cornbleth, 1991).

There are alternative theoretical stances which represent different beliefs and values about the role and value of the curriculum, and base their positions on areas of critical theory, art and literature. They emphasize the development of self and interrelationships of the school and society as fundamental. As well, the teacher is a key member of the learning team--given responsibility and accountability. The humanist or reconceptualist approach involves the creation of personal meaning or learning. Reflection on the personal meaning and content of experience by the individual is

highlighted. Learning is holistic and the curriculum "emerges" through teacher-student pursuit of common interests. Social issues can then be the core of the curriculum, presenting real life, relevant problems for analysis and resolution. It is a participatory education that does not alienate the school from the society. The humanist school of curriculum development is distinguished primarily from the blueprint model by its focus on the individual. Humanist curricular models focus on the individual construction of knowledge. The social negotiation of this knowledge leads to the body of knowledge seen as the basis of interpretative, generative and practical activities. This approach allows for alternative knowledge forms, methodologies and interpretations, thus permitting the evolution and attention to curriculum, human potential and the empowerment of the individual in society. The construction of meaning by and for the learner is a critical concept. The systematic structuring of learning experiences is crucial to this approach. They have in common a challenge of the assumption that knowledge is objective, static and certain. They substitute, instead, the assumption that meaning is dynamic, interactive and non-prescriptive in nature.

The evolution of curriculum in education is inextricably tied to socio-political considerations. In the case of developing countries, this has inevitably been connected to

political emancipation, for colonial policies on the accessibility and content of education were not invariably tied to the needs of the colonized nations. In African countries, most of whom endured a period of occupation by a European nation, the direction of educational planning can be analyzed as falling into three periods--mission, colonial and post-colonial, each of which had a different agenda for its students. There is justification for suggesting that today we are living in a substantially different political era, so that a new agenda for education, which is qualitatively different from post-colonial objectives, can be identified. Present day planners are determined to bring about the empowerment of the indigenous population as a goal of educational policies and practices, and to be independent of western influences in the creation of these policies. The divorce from western domination, however, does not exclude making use of their conventional curriculum objectives which may be the most appropriate to set in motion education programmes for progress and development.

In this time of rapid technological change and the accumulation of an immense information base, the feasibility of implementing a liberal public education system is questionable. The overwhelming objection to adopting this philosophy lies in the staggering quantity of information which makes up the content bank. Choices in content are less

significant than strategies and processes for knowledge use. Thus, to be labelled an educated person is no longer dependent upon the acquisition of specific content that had been previously categorized as "worthwhile knowledge." This knowledge is now viewed as essentially tangential to the process of learning. Secondly, we must critically examine the assumption that literacy and development go hand in hand. There is, in fact "no single preferred view of literacy, no single rationale or justification for it, and no single strategy for achieving it--the choices are many and complex." (Bhola, 1990, p.38) We must, therefore, take a fresh look at development education, avoid the appropriation of colonial domination models, and define objectives appropriate to the here and now of the society. The use of constructivism (the position that reality is determined internally by the individual) and the notion of negotiated knowledge provide curriculum developers with new directions and perspectives to explore. Decisions with regard to content areas to be used can be determined at a grassroots level by the participants in the particular learning context.

The goals and objectives of education have frequently been tied to development as the means to improve "quality of life", yet radical critics maintain that throughout history development projects have proven to be less a matter of altruism than of control. Today information is not readily

controlled; it is accessible generally to huge masses of people. It is difficult to justify a situation where the public is routinely schooled in what cannot be agreed upon as "worthwhile" knowledge. The question thus remains as to the appropriate focus for educational planning. A tentative platform from which to begin this exploration is to require the curriculum planner to define a set of guidelines. These guidelines would operate within a framework where knowledge has to be socially negotiated and embraces multiple inputs. A crucial tool in this process is formative evaluation, the process of using the feedback from each stage of development to make modifications in approach, scope or content. Formative evaluation permits the developer to make revisions and build in choices, from the early stages of defining the problem, to the final implementation phase in the classroom.

#### LITERACY, CURRICULUM AND MEDIA

The issues of literacy and curriculum development are two preeminent areas of concern for contemporary western educators. Students exiting from today's educational institutions are judged as inadequately prepared to function effectively in the workplace of contemporary society. Along with these perceived inadequacies in the educational system, the rapid changes in communication patterns suggest a need for reform in curricula to include the new literacies. These new literacies comprise the newest technologies, and a

reconstructed approach to learning, working and social functioning: the learner is seen as an active participant who constructs meaning and defines an individual learning package. Media are incorporated into the education system as a mean to acquiring access to and control of information, so the formal educational institution in effect functions as a microcosm of the larger society.

The links between media, visual and other literacies provide a natural structure for connecting contemporary society and the educational system in ways that are culturally congruent. Too often, the curriculum of the early childhood classroom in developing countries in no way reflects the world outside the school. While there may be an overall trend towards a global village in which cultural boundaries and differences disappear, there persists a concurrent tendency for human beings to differentiate themselves and to maintain differences. Thus, it is important for educational planners to hold both processes in mind, preparing teachers, to prepare young people, to live comfortably in both worlds.

In western society, for example, children begin school with a clear image of what to expect: they hold some notion of the appearance of a classroom; they know quite a lot about the relationship between teachers and pupils; they hold an image in their minds of "good" and "bad" teachers; they have been

surrounded by print from an early age. Some of these images have come from peers and siblings while "playing school", but nowadays more come from television. In contrast, many African children may never have seen a school or a book; the parents may not have been to school; and they certainly do not have television.

The multidisciplinary nature of media studies, curriculum development and the thematic approach to learning holistically can be broached from a variety of perspectives based on various theories of learning and development. The psychosexual stages of development are critical learning stages to Freud; Erikson's psychosocial stages, Piaget's stages of intellectual development, the developmental trends based on needs as proposed by Maslow, and the role of age in moral development according to Kohlberg all provide a lens to effect decisions in curriculum building (Spodek, 1991).

The traditionally peripheral role played by formal education in educating the young, with special emphasis on developing countries in Africa was discussed in Heynemann (1971). Increasingly, a western style of formal education is supplanting (in terms of being given time, validation and resources) traditional informal education which was founded on a rural lifestyle, (Awotwa-Efebo, 1987) language and cultural differences (Hungwe, 1989) and diverse ways of perceiving and



interpreting (Ajayi-Dopemu, 1982; Colle, 1986). Some portion of the background to media studies would involve a study of the way that media influence learning. (Bhola, 1990, p.10) The positive or negative impact of different media on various age groups in a variety of contexts is argued from many viewpoints, and definitive conclusions are suspect. Scholars agree that learning through more than one medium generally improves retention (Hanson, 1988), and media require experience and intervention to assure that meaning is reliably conveyed. (Broudy, 1988; Dwyer, 1988)

Visual images are playing an increasing role in instruction, and particularly in the field of language arts instruction, as photo essays are seen as complementing verbal assignments (Sinatra, Beaudry, Guastello & Stahl-Gemake, 1988). Visual discrimination skills have been linked to successful acquisition of reading skills (Hanson, 1988). Gambrell and Jawitz (1993) found that illustrations help readers to organize information and better focus attention. Early experiences with the environment carry instructional overtones much too significant to ignore<sup>5</sup>, and the visual environment is a critical. Informal childhood interactions with the environment form the foundation for later learning (Christie, 1992; Aldridge & Kuby, 1991; Kuby, Aldridge & Snyder, 1994).

Experiences with the environment and specifically media experiences can be variously a source of inspiration, imitation, stimulation, rejection, denial or opposition, but cannot realistically be excluded in the examination of curriculum issues (Vukadinovic, 1986). Early experiences in modern western society include a range of media activities which assist in acclimating the child to the adult world (Nolker and Tyler, 1991)--it would be hard to imagine a childhood devoid of an environment with a variety of media experiences including television, computers, books, and environmental print. The latter refers to "print found in the natural environment of the child. This would include logos, labels, road signs, billboards and other print found in the child's immediate ecology...Children construct knowledge about print by interacting with the natural visual displays surrounding them." (Bhola, 1990) The instructional use of environmental print is reputed to be an example of early literacy (Kirkland, Aldridge & Kuby, 1991).

Environmental print represents the link between the child's pre-school experience and the academic world of the various literacies encountered in the classroom. Its inclusion in the curriculum has become critical--as the appropriate medium through which to capitalize on prior experience and to validate that experience as a relevant feature in the child's initiation to the school experience.

In the process it seeks to create a smooth transition and an exchange or interchange between the two learning environments (Walden, 1990). Literacy, then, begins in the context of the home environment with its diversity of media products, so the teacher must be prepared to draw upon the child's abundant and distinct experiences in the structuring of classroom activities.

#### THE ROLE OF MEDIA IN HUMAN GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

More and more research evidence points to the significance of media as a force in moulding the individual in the society (Colle, 1988). The socialization process by its very definition cannot take place in a vacuum. The context is so critical that no component in it can be either undervalued or discarded as irrelevant. The individual and the society are interactive, interdependent forces which, however, do not necessarily act predictably upon each other. (Neuman & Roskos, 1993; Roe, 1987; Rubinstein 1983; Singer & Singer, 1983)

An inquiry into the peculiar characteristics of early childhood learners, and the literature on the potential variety of effects of media revealed that experience with media is an essential pre-requisite to many other learning experiences of particular significance in formal education contexts (Broudy, 1988; Dwyer, 1988; Fosnot, 1985; Haley, 1992). Experience with environmental print in the classroom

assists children in making the transition from logos to print (Kirkland, Aldridge & Kuby, 1991). The meaning of media experiences for young children must be determined by educators in order that their potential be harnessed. Thirdly, media studies must be based on critical analysis--a concrete exercise consisting of deconstruction and production. This process leads to the understanding that media are purveyors of new meanings, new knowledge and new understandings.

Media literacy follows from a series of mediated experiences rather than a simple result of intellectual, physical or social maturation. Media literacy is "taught", just as students learn to read printed language text. We "read" and gain information from media based on our ability to translate images and symbols into meanings which fit in with our past experiences, constructing our own knowledge about the world and the ways in which media shape knowledge acquisition. Visual literacy, as a process of "language" acquisition and as the most basic embodiment and affirmation of constructed reality is the central concept in the development of the media science curriculum.

The major role of production in developing visual literacy has made the appropriation of concrete, practical exercises an important component of the course. It has become increasingly clear that lesson plans require much more than

theoretical, "direct teaching" methods to give the course academic validity. The constructivist emphasis on "play" as central to learning has directed attention to the importance of contexts of learning. If successful teachers do, in fact, "plant" educational experiences, i.e. have learning tasks embedded in play to bring about specific learning outcomes, then media as an increasingly greater part of that context has to be incorporated into those experiences. One can "plant" increasingly complex media experiences.

Consistent with constructivist theory (Fosnot, 1985; Strommen & Lincoln, 1992) and a holistic student-centred approach, the first lessons involve a series of explorations on the concept of media in education and the students construct an operant definition of media which is drawn from their own intellectual, pedagogical and social context. The next lessons delve into the theoretical background which justifies the central position of media studies in teacher training. They comprise an examination of the assumptions from philosophy and sociology which underlie the increased emphasis on media literacy. Since the target group for whom the course was developed are trainers of early childhood teachers, a unit on the psychological characteristics of the young child is essential. Particularly important is the clarification of various theories of learning and the development of the child in the first years. The revision of

this material focusses on media as an integral part of the learning package and the pedagogical impact of environmental print and other forms of media in early childhood.

A large section of the course provides exercises to fine tune the critical analysis skills of students. This is accomplished by deconstructing media, appropriating techniques from photography, dissecting still photographs, and by producing media products. Media are deconstructed by considering their function and meaning in social history and their role in the present world. Through an analysis of social documentary photographs (Nolker & Tyler, 1991; Sekula, 1984), we disclose the techniques which are used to guide the viewer to explicit meanings. By becoming aware of the photographer's use of such techniques as punctum, light, colour, cropping, perspective and framing, a student is able to read more into an image, seeing it not so much as a mirror of an objective reality but as a re-presentation--where a meaning, beyond what we agree upon as objective reality, is superimposed on a subject by the photographer's intent and deliberate use of techniques to accentuate that intent. These techniques are to be assessed further to determine the meaning they convey to the young child or any other given target group. By doing content analysis of magazines, television programs, advertising and textbooks, the student of media studies draw conclusions as to the intended and potential

meanings of images for the early childhood learner. Researching the disparity between intended meanings and actual perceptions is an important component of educational planning.

To extend critical analysis to modern media implies that we ask the same questions of computer software and projected media as of still photos, determining what techniques were used, what was intended and how this would effect young children--always bearing in mind their particular ways of attending and acquiring knowledge. The construction of a media product intended for young children, along with the implementation and evaluation of that product is the concluding stage for studies in media science.

What, then, are the overriding principles which emerge in the development of curriculum? The individual's construction of knowledge falls squarely within the boundaries of postpositivist ideas in which the process, its analysis and critique have most import. "Subject matter should provide opportunities for a reflection on and the grist for a critique of knowledge, for engaging the student dynamically in the creation of meaning." (Ornstein, p.273) Subject matter selection, then, is based on its facility to provide the fodder for reflective discourse.

The principle of making the process specific to the context is a basic one, using the culture of the principal players, i.e. the learners, to guide content selection. To make the learning process into a relevant exercise means not only taking the child and the cultural environment into account, but giving weight to teacher interpretation and practice, current curricular practices and decisions on content.

In summary, then, the techno-scientific approach to educational planning includes the media as an area of new knowledge where competency can be measured by the ability to be "functionally literate". The humanist approach empowers the student to understand and control the media, rather than be prey to media control. The framework from which postpositivists envisage media includes the delineation of the role they play in the construction of meaning and activities. The strategy also involves a critical analysis of the individual's interactions with media which lead to the control of learning and knowledge. There follows logically the empowerment of the individual in the realization of sociocultural objectives and personal goals.



### CHAPTER THREE: CURRICULAR CHANGE IN AN AFRICAN CONTEXT

It was only by the late twentieth century that the technological and industrial growth which had infused the western world with new curriculum theories began to make an impact on developing countries. In the last thirty years the independent status granted to many developing countries, particularly on the African continent, has put these countries on the same footing as western nations in having some responsibilities in the area of curricular development. The dichotomy of technical-scientific and humanistic approaches to curricular planning, representing the two basic models of curricular development which espouse conflicting assumptions, presents a second challenging dilemma for planners in the Third World. In fact, what the process of curriculum development might uncover is that what is appropriate is, in reality, a synthesis--an eclectic approach which uses goals, objectives, implementation and evaluation as a linear structure, and a humanistic philosophy as the guide to implementation style.

If we look at the kinds of changes that have taken place in the western world within a temporal framework, we see that the shift from agrarian to industrial society spanned several centuries, but within one generation it has been transformed into a technologically complex information society. The education system must adapt its policies and practices to

prepare this generation to progress and evolve with the technology in the context of an information based world. This kind of society demands that curriculum planners provide future choices. Projecting, however, is fraught with uncertainty and changes are plagued with suspicion. We need to provide viable alternatives, and open up choices of programmes that create unanticipated new pathways. As a matter of fact, it is considered that "the explosion of knowledge has challenged the validity--even the occurrence--of previously held conclusions. A constant challenge for us all will be to abandon existing answers and perceptions." (Ornstein, p.395) How will this worrisome prospect be received in developing countries? The challenge of the century as seen by some curriculum developers is to find a balance between the basic needs of a country and the desire to be in step with the rest of the world. Put another way, the problem lies in finding the basis on which to decide what emphasis is to be placed on the acquisition of and perpetuation of traditional knowledge and skills, classical education, or a new approach which caters to the dynamic area of the needs of society. It is no longer so important to be expert or proficient in a content area--rather, the new focus is on processes and procedures.

Our society, then, is dynamic, and information we make use of today is quickly outmoded--it is rapidly perceived as

not reliable, not complete because the world is much more complex than ever previously imagined. Traditional approaches to teaching and learning may have been based on partial or even *invalid* conceptions about the nature and stages of learning. There are, in fact, differences in the skills and processes necessary for information acquisition today that cannot be accessed through traditional learning strategies and methodologies. We could suggest that developing countries abandon liberal education. It is wasteful and irresponsible for them to spend a century to transform into an industrial society only to discover that that world has been surpassed by the culture of the information age. Perhaps it is not a devaluation of the content that is central, but a re-emphasis on delivery systems and an expansion of individual independence that can provide new directions to curricular changes.

What are the similarities and differences in the African and Western contexts which affect curriculum planning? First of all, the life experiences of the rural child in Africa (which is where the majority of the population resides) is of quite a different nature from that of the city child. There is a predictable routine of play and stimulation which is the background against which the early childhood teacher seeks to bring new information, values and skills. The environment is one in which the needs for shelter, food and safety are a

central preoccupation, while what Maslow considers "higher" needs are attended to in conjunction with satisfaction of deficiency needs, through non-formal learning situations. Daily survival in rural areas demands spending the major portion of the day engaged in activities that lead to the satisfaction of basic needs. Thus, time is spent fetching water, cultivating crops, tending cattle, collecting firewood, cleaning, and preparing food. Additional projects embarked upon are home crafts, e.g. sewing or crocheting, or traditional activities and rituals. The presentation of culturally localized songs and dances often accompanies the performance of routine tasks.

The role of media in this context is tied to the satisfaction of basic needs, rather than acting as the bridge to the school institution which affects cognitive development. The plethora of environmental print in western society carries a considerably different significance from that of the African child. In the African context, any print encountered represents cultural values which are his lifeline--i.e., nothing in his environment is peripheral to his survival and happiness. In the western world, most print is superfluous to the fundamental existence and meaning of a young child's life. Because the rural child in Africa has limited experience with print and constructed visuals, the use of western style illustration will have unpredictable meaning unless efforts

are made to provide translation and learning experiences in the visual sphere. What can be taken for granted for any students is that certain cognitive structures can be developed using experience with visuals. (Perspective, for example, as explained by Ajayi-Dopemu (1982), can be taught to developing world students.)

Ethnic identity in developing countries is maintained through cultural activities. An effective teacher can herself be the bridge between the traditional world where knowledge has a solid basis in the demands of the concrete world, and the world of information and technology which has infiltrated developing countries and influences the thinking of curriculum planners who embrace technology with as much enthusiasm as they previously greeted classical education. We must bear in mind that adequate literacy levels can be attained in these developing countries using simple materials if critical analysis is used in the process. In reality, the potential for widespread changes in education in the foreseeable future is minimal, because of the rudimentary infrastructure and the prohibitive costs of advancement. The implementation of technologically sophisticated education programs is therefore not feasible in the foreseeable future. In fact, the limitations in programming caused by fiscal constraints is a major consideration for educators in developing countries which struggle to provide such minimal resources for students

as classrooms and textbooks. Certainly under these circumstances the eradication of classroom shortages, for example, is more easily tackled by the mobilization of community resources, for the physical structures are not themselves dependent upon government assistance--bricks are made from mud, and trees are a readily available resource with which to create school equipment. Pencils and books are another story. The Ministry of Culture and Education in Zimbabwe has not had funds to reprint basic classroom materials such as charts for almost a decade. Indeed, it has been a critical mandate of educational planners to exploit resources of the community for educational purposes. In the search to create a learning environment where excellence and relevance go hand in hand, the need arises to analyze the differences between the culture of the environment and the culture of the proposed school curriculum. Any discussion of curriculum involves not only design and content of courses, but teaching methods and styles. Central also is the fact that teachers become "curriculum makers when they bring into the classroom materials to create a more effective environment for learning and when they adapt innovations designed by others to their particular students." (Tanner and Tanner, 1990, p.304) To this end we can dismiss the inevitability of curriculum imperialism, since the onus is on teachers to take a critical approach to all curricula.

There is an irrefutable interaction between politics and media. Historically, education has been considered the key to personal and social fulfilment in the Western world, implying responsible citizenship and full and satisfying participation in both the labour market and the community. In fact, the outcome of practices and the political stance of the education system has customarily been to maintain the status quo by reflecting in school practices the attitudes and relationships of the larger society. The usual strategies employed to maintain the status quo through educational politics can possibly be undermined by progressive, interactive, child-directed learning. The status quo, therefore, in promoting a democratic policy that stands for universal education (which purports to make men equal, wealthy and wise) dominates the educational philosophy of modern and non-industrialized countries.

#### AFRICAN VS WESTERN EDUCATION MODELS

Patroba Ondiek (1986) talks about the influences which have forged the direction and goals of education on the African continent. He suggests an historical differentiation between early missionary education, colonial missionary education, and post-independence education.

When we look at formal education practices within these time frames, we find that there were differences, but also

several recurring ideas in defining the aims of education. There was always a concern to define the type of education which is considered by those in control to be suitable for the indigenous population. Very often it was suggested that it should "provide Africans with a type of education most likely to make them adapt to a suitable and realistic style of life. The formula most consistently expounded is education for rural life and rural development." (Ondiek, 1986, p.22)

The original goal of education was to make native peoples literate, Christian, healthy and productive, able to effectively and efficiently achieve the specific aims of the missionaries, and, later, colonial lords. There was little genuine concern for the needs, wishes and interests expressed by the indigenous population. The colonisers thought that they knew what was best for the natives, their attitude being predominantly patronizing--education was designed to civilize primitive, illiterate, savage beasts. Ondiek (1986) says:

All the colonialists aims were geared to colonial expedience. The central objective was to provide an education that would enable the African to adapt to a simple life as second class citizens who it would be easy to govern and who were not very ambitious. (p.23)



In the mid-twenties, the British commissioned a report on indigenous education which suggested that native education concentrate on upgrading agricultural techniques and focus on making improvements to personal hygiene rather than fixate on academic education. But Africans rejected the recommendations of the Phelps-Stokes report (1962) which, if implemented, would have, they believed, prevented their entering into the mainstream of modern ideas and technology, thus jeopardizing a better quality of life. They saw the proposed education system as subjugating them to an inferior status, so they demanded an education for their children of the same nature and quality as that of colonial children. The result was an unprecedented demand for the creation of primary schools. There was a huge influx of students at this level, and a consequent shortage of secondary schools. This eventually resulted in a large population of overschooled but undereducated students, whose parents were equally dissatisfied that their sacrifices for academic development did not lead to an improved social situation.

There were actually four different strategies attempting to educate the indigenous population--the first presented an undiluted European curriculum and created indigenous Europeans, that is, native people whose skills and thinking were that of the status quo missionaries and colonizers; the next was a converted curriculum which would give basic

academic skills, but focus on agriculture, hygiene and improved living conditions, that is an adaptation of the curriculum based on the realities of the society. The third, the establishment of tribal schools, was an attempt to validate the indigenous ways of life within the academic institutions by making them "vehicles for cultural and psychological stabilization of individual pupils." (Heyneman, 1971, p.72) The emphasis was on clan and kin, while at the same time attempting to de-emphasize superstitions and ritual practices. The inclusion of African illustrations, African stories and African social studies in no way changed the basic societal attitudes as to the real meaning and value of education, as the route to white collar employment. The fourth educational strategy constituted a return to a more traditionally colonial syllabus. All these efforts failed to take into account the reality of the situation which is that school, in the long run, (despite parental protestations to the contrary) is not valued for itself, nor do students go to school to become good farmers or, as Mogashe (1971) puts it, to "establish links with their cultural or political heritage in a socialization process..."

It was the nature of the classical curriculum (this includes teacher education) which failed to empower the majority and deprediated much of the traditional culture. Because of the schools's tendency to reinforce the

conventional class structures, blue collar employment was not relieved by education, which has left a legacy of students whose education ill-prepared them for urban stress and demands. The dramatic disjunction between the oral tradition in Africa and the culture which that tradition embodies and western educational practices has resulted in the isolation of a generation of literate students from their heritage. What colonial Africa substituted for traditional communal communication and cultural traditions created a cultural dilemma. Two main issues which educators must deal with are (1) what to do with traditional media which are the means of changing behaviour and modernizing economies and societies, and (2) the structural differences of educational systems which are severely divorced from a child's real ecological, emotional, and economic environment. Education functions in such instances as an instrument of thorough deculturation of the African child. In traditional African societies, culture has not necessarily been linked with literacy or western-originated education.

There have been two parallel streams, the oral tradition and the literate tradition, at most levels of African society. Almost all African nations have either inherited or adopted Western oriented educational systems which have no place for the rich educational resources available in African traditions. (Mogashe, 1971)

The mythical, typical African child has had very different experience with a very different environment when compared to the western child. Experience with natural, concrete, simple materials from the environment are the major educational resources. The cultural milieu has a quality which is characterized by a distinctive spiritual or mystical sense, compared with the more mundane experiences of the western child of the information age. The classroom, for a very large population, for a very long time into the foreseeable future, will retain these properties for logistical reasons. The depressed political and economic atmosphere combined with the spiritually rich cultural climate means that change, development and progress in education will be a quantifiably and qualitatively different pace and process from that experienced in the developed world.

African nations could propose an innovative model--an education system using traditional media forms alongside modern western ones would create an inclusive policy for the majority of people, who could therefore participate fully through singing, dancing, drama and sculpture. This model would "utilize the materials from the rural environments where most Africans live, and modify them for the urban dwellers." (Ziegler and Ashante, 1992, p.54) It may prove easier to expand these simple media forms than to attempt to simplify the complex western models, whose merit in the context has not

been proven. Furthermore, the "employment of folk media for effectively and substantially conveying modern messages in a language and style which would be readily comprehended, will be possible only if participants of the traditional media are utilized." (Ziegler and Ashante, 1992)

Typical knowledge would therefore be supplanted by folk knowledge forms. At the present time, African educational systems, following western ones, are based on urban life-experience, even though the majority of the people are rural dwellers and do not espouse values which represent the capitalist point of view. A study of the responses of the general population to the dominant culture, i.e., acceptance of the attitudes and values of "the consciousness of 'dependent' peoples as well within the very structures of the dependent societies" (Reeves, 1993, p.63) is an important component of a media curriculum package.

It is widely acknowledged that the use of media in cross-cultural settings is a complex one. The phrase *media imperialism* has been bandied about in recent years. In an age of sensitivity to such terminology as political correctness and cultural appropriation, caution is exercised with respect to disclaiming indigenous media forms or forcing the use of western models, yet

there is recognition that the use of local and imported media products by highly differentiated national audiences, and the types of meanings and responses which they construct from them, are the product of complex sets of social and cultural relations and mediations. They cannot be understood in terms of simple cultural domination models, whether of international or national focus. (Reeves, 1993, p.51)

The role and influence of mass media must be described in unique settings to understand adequately the influence and individual functions played in different geographical and political situations. Traditionally, mass media such as newspapers and radio were created and controlled by external colonial groups or dictatorial indigenous leaders. Therefore, the press was not dependable as an empowering tool for the general public.

Some media academics even challenge the assumption of the central role of conventional media in the daily lives of the public in non-industrialized countries. It is "possible that media and communications analysis scarcely constitutes an important area of intellectual concern as it has become...throughout the advanced capitalist countries." (Reeves, 1993) What is essential is to define meanings, value

and influence of media within specific local contexts not by external standards but from the point of view of consumers.

Learning experiences under present day socially and technologically sophisticated conditions can be redefined as the "interaction between the learners and the external conditions in the environment to which they react." (Ondiek, 1986, p.10) To this interplay between instructional contexts and contents, media studies responds admirably with a functional, discovery learning approach which validates and reinforces independent knowledge acquisition, making it personal and meaningful. If we consider curriculum to encompass all the experiences the child has in the name of the school, then this includes all background events he/she brings to school which effect practices in the school, and vice versa, meaning the total teaching environment of teacher, student, materials and facilities, of which media is a major component. (Ondiek, 1986)

The mission of media education is the clarification of instructional objectives to give understanding to the relationship between behavioral outcomes and subject contents. Media work within combined domains--affective, psychomotor and cognitive, and are increasingly attuned to the interactive nature of the relationship between the domains.

Because media education is concerned with both denotative and connotative messages, the cultural context plays a role of primary importance. The culturally specific content and the interdependence of meanings of emotional, political, moral, aesthetic, social and ideological import of media education require a flexibility of approach. Consequently evolution and flux are the mainstay characteristics of curriculum development. In the rural African locale, cultural diversity coupled with a worldview distinctly different from a technoscientific perspective demand programme flexibility, variety in content and an acceptance of creative, unanticipated ways of implementing courses.



## CHAPTER FOUR: EMERGENT PRINCIPLES

### THE COMPLEXITY OF THE PROCESS

Curriculum development from a technoscientific point of view is an oxymoron. The possibility of logical, measurable educational outcomes seems to be in direct opposition to an evolutionary, child-centred approach to education. Where these two perspectives can come together is through the new literacies, in particular, media education. As we noted in Chapter Two, the many disciplines involved in media education combined with the many context possibilities of cross-cultural situations presents a curriculum developer with a wide range of choices. A central attitude in curriculum planning is regard for a variety of viewpoints. The first area in which an educator must be adaptable concerns the restriction of perspectives. There is an abundance of viewpoints which can support the development process. Not only are details of content essentially boundless, but also there are many players in the context that must be given consultative powers. Contributions come from school administrators and their government counterparts, economic planners, culturally specific details, and conventional tried and tested curricula.

In the study of curriculum development, some recurrent principles surface for educators which can be guidelines for

the design of future exercises. Although at first elusive, the direction in which a planner must proceed eventually becomes clear. Through serious attention to general trends in practices and philosophies of academic planners, and communication with others in the field, educators become conscious of the guidelines which assist in creating future programmes of study.

#### KEY NOTIONS

The key notions which recurred in my reflection upon the development of the media science course for a cross-cultural setting were risk, flexibility, uncertainty, unpredictability and a dynamic process based on critical inquiry. Knowledge itself must be acknowledged as socially negotiated, public, mobile and powerful. One is furthermore reminded of the central role of the style and methodology of the classroom teacher in the dissemination of an individual interpretation of curricula.

#### REACTIONS TO CHANGE

Throughout the process of curriculum development, a planner has to be vigilant, aware that changes are destined to be received suspiciously when the society has not expressly requested modifications. Any change that includes uncertainty and risk represents a further threat to the control, stability and predictability of the education system that we know. An

evolutionary perspective on curriculum development indicates that innovation is central to progress. The key is to assure that change is socially prescribed and mutually orchestrated by all concerned parties. The emergence of dissatisfaction with the status quo is often the result of the discovery by students of the discrepancies and contradictions between their everyday experiences and the curriculum of institutionalized learning. They express disillusion with a system which produces "minimally literate citizenry and competent workforce that is ill prepared to seriously challenge the political, economic or social status quo." (Cornbleth, 1990. p.187)

#### THE SANCTION OF QUANTITATIVE OUTCOMES

The tendency of educators to be complacent when the education process shows supposedly desirable quantifiable outcomes is based on many assumptions that sincere and diligent probing unveils as inconsistent with reality. A dynamic process is not amenable to conventional quantification. The so-called blueprint approach to curriculum development does not allow for conflict, creative or critical thinking, or variations in outcomes of learning. That particular approach to curriculum development, as we have noted before, is based on a need to provide rational explanations for human activities, whereas human learning is an activity which eludes such a linear, scientific, objective approach. Learning is a process which is social and dynamic.

Human activities in the pedagogical sphere are fraught with uncertainty because of the unpredictability of the outcome of human interactions, unique personal teaching styles, and individualized interpretations of educational objectives, student behaviour and content. Critical inquiry demands, furthermore, that the teacher be regarded as mentor rather than preacher, that the teacher be considered a learner rather than placed on an intellectual pedestal, and that teachers and students be partners in risk-taking explorations.

#### THE STIMULUS OF UNCERTAINTY

The uncertainties, discrepancies and conflicts which occur naturally during the learning process are the stimuli which make teaching both demanding and exciting. In its unpredictability, academic exploration opens up many challenging dimensions for inquiry which means that the creation of knowledge is a continuous adventure. The right to dissent is an important adjunct to the process of creativity. A critical approach acknowledges this, in that conflict is seen as one "impetus for change and offers intellectual and social improvement." (Cornbleth, 1990. p.53) The creative nature of inconsistency and conflict is accepted as a stimulus to new ways of reflecting. Problems are welcome challenges in educational discourse.

## THE DOMINATION OF WESTERN MODELS: KNOWLEDGE AND POWER

In a situation such as that of a developing country, change and development in curriculum is often imposed from outside by virtue of the pressure to emulate western development patterns. Even though the curriculum may conflict with the local culture, in a circumstance where cultural domination has been so indoctrinating, any critical look at the curriculum is viewed not as a strike against imperialism or appropriation, but as an attempt at control. Localization of schooling practices is seen as blocking the road to progress. Further to this is the reality that mass education throughout the world has a theoretical framework which is universal despite cultural, political and economic differences. Every aspect of the modern system shows a standardization in general curriculum structure, which, it is suggested, is "based on the tendency of policy makers to imitate tried and true models of educational communities." (Meyer, Kamans and Benavot, (1992), p.8) This tendency is particularly applicable to colonies which recently achieved independent status. What worked to give the colonizers status and wealth will not be readily rejected by indigenous governments. However, what need to be examined are the accompanying elements in the structures which perpetuate inequality in access, opportunity, power and status sharing.

## DANGERS OF CURRICULAR INVASION

The imposition of a new education programme which includes a course in media studies must be examined within the context of a curriculum package that may have been imposed, have a biased content, or reinforce vested interests. Media studies is fashionable in educational circles today. The need to be in the driver's seat on the information highway has sent out a signal of urgency for educators to channel their resources into this arena. In addition, the determination of curriculum planners in Third World countries to be intellectually competitive on the world market requires having a variety of courses which address contemporary issues and content. This offers even more of an inducement to embrace the new technologies without considering their role and relevance in the larger educational scheme. The idea that curriculum is a subject rather than a process is dominant in this instance. So what is the result of sweeping acceptance of foreign curricula on the products, i.e. the students? It can be convincingly argued that the impact will be the same as it was for the generations of students who were subject to the teacher dominated, content focussed, rote learning academic environment. Many students, who were routinely schooled in that authoritarian system, were nevertheless able to progress in their acquisition of knowledge, and to achieve remarkable levels of academic excellence.

## THE CONSISTENT PATTERN OF CHANGE

There is never pressure for revolutionary educational change, and yet the pendulum has swung many times in terms of educational trends in the last thirty years. The impetus, perhaps, has been that change itself is welcomed as a way to make progress. During the search for improvement and universality of opportunity there have been many types of domination perpetrated by various educational practices, from tracking to integration. These responses to demands for change, or changes in the search for progress are one way for planners to field test their ideas, as a step to developing better designs and practices for a constantly changing world. Third World countries have the same intellectual resources as western countries which pressures for change will force to surface, and a critical examination of curriculum practices will be the inevitable response. Whether this will lead to a rejection of externally generated curricula is immaterial, since the examination must be done critically in the cultural context. What is of more importance is to assess the feasibility of universal implementation of some curricula from the standpoint of material and structural resources as well as to decide the basis on which one will justify the choices made in the disbursement of limited resources.

## QUESTIONING THE INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF EDUCATION

Another dimension to the problem of curriculum imperialism involves a reexamination of the whole issue of government run schools. The direction which future schools may have to take is a decentralization of institutions of learning and a return to apprenticeship or small community managed schools for much of the transmission of knowledge. In fact, professional schools of the western world do practice this in large measure, as opposed to separating theory and practice. In education training centres there has been a tendency to place the future teacher in the classroom in the early stages of training, rather than at the end of a period of theoretical learning.

## THE POLITICAL ROLE OF SCHOOLS: SOCIOLOGICAL INTERPRETATIONS

Literacy, morality, skills acquisition, and economic opportunity, status and personal expression (Fuller, 1991) are part of the agenda imposed on the school. As such, it is a potentially powerful institution. The consistent reputed "failure" of schools to fulfil the mandate of these various roles is further proof of the conviction that schools hold a critical position in society. What schools actually do, what the western curriculum embodies in terms of cultural and ideological materials, and the fact that empirical evidence contradicts society's beliefs about what schools should do, all present a challenge as to how to execute a deliberative



analysis to develop suitable curricula. What is further required is a reexamination of the cultural significance of our dependence on the public school system to perform certain tasks. These particular tasks are tied to an ideology. As long as progress and development in Third World countries are attached to western ideologies, that western curriculum will be deeply ensconced in the Third World. The school in fact creates a multitude of problems for students, teachers, administration, planners, and political and economic leaders, based on the uncritical belief in formal education as the road to choice and possibility.

#### CULTURAL INVASION AND MULTICULTURAL REALITY

The intrusion of state institutions into a wide range of human activities has also been accepted uncritically. Along with the acceptance of this invasion is the contrived demise of local culture. Although indigenous peoples may publicly espouse western beliefs, the rejection of their own norms is a myth. The reality is that, in spite of efforts (by missionaries, for example,) to eliminate the practices of witchcraft, traditional healing, circumcision, scarification and other initiation rites, these rituals continue to survive in many countries. In some instances the social, economic or scientific benefit has been endorsed by the western world. The irony of the attempts of educational developers and policy makers today to institutionalize

preschool and lifelong learning lies in their failure to accept the disappearance of the primary role of institutions in the education of the individual in both old and new worlds.

#### THE CHANGING FACE OF LITERACY

Institutions were not essential to the dissemination of knowledge until the invention of the printing press created a gap between readers and non-readers--thus childhood was created. With the increased use of sophisticated non-verbal means of communication, Neil Postman suggests, the disappearance of childhood will be a reality. Prior to the use of written languages, Kantner and Hoffman (1992) suggest that different cultures had evolved equivalent literary forms such as myths, legends and fairy tales, all of which originated in another communication domain and were translated into written language. Who are we, then, to be so presumptuous as to judge the process of evolution to be at its apex in the stage of print literacy? Who has made the assumption that our description of functional literacy is basic or precludes other qualitatively different types of communication? We can see, read, feel, taste and hear--all of these senses are forms of understanding--or an expression of intuition. As technology becomes more complex and less dependent upon prior forms of knowledge, so the human communication process must keep pace.

## UNCERTAINTY AND CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION

The discrepancy between theoretical models and practice is a major concern of curriculum planners. Secondly, there is an uneasiness with non-prescriptive designs. Only with built-in flexibility and choices can a curriculum be appropriated in an effective manner from one context to another, and that still entails the risk of uncertainty in practice.

## THE PIVOTAL ROLE OF THE TEACHER

The answer to this latter conundrum is to place the responsibility for the implementation procedures and methodologies firmly on the shoulders of the teachers. In order to prepare them to execute these new responsibilities with authority and competence, teacher training must involve teachers--in developing their understanding of the ubiquitous scope of their role, and in equipping them to make ongoing critical assessment of the system within which they are working. In addition they must be prepared to accept that content is simply a springboard to learning. The sanctioning of flux, friction and scepticism as healthy integral components of curriculum development is far from reality. It may prove to be impossible to convert educators to this point of view in the training of teachers, unless teaching and creating curricula itself becomes a more generic component of the training.

## THE DYNAMIC NATURE OF LEARNING

In the final analysis, what we are left with in cross-cultural settings are the same problems we face anywhere. Decisions are made at every stage of development on how and what is actually taught, and as humans carrying on these activities there is only a modicum of certainty as to outcome. subject areas and skills. The certainty lies within some acquisition, e.g. the sciences. These areas of learning can be practically tested. Much of what the school is held is not objective--values, responsible for in today's world morality and citizenship. As well, the meaning of literacy is evolving as technology changes. Understanding and use of process has become a key to learning. Another key notion is that of diversity. Certainly in a setting such as Canada where the diversity of the population exceeds any planners' nightmare, the need to accept diverse approaches, perspectives, opinions, and ways of knowing goes without saying. We can use a technical-scientific approach to learning at times; but, it would be folly to omit the humanistic perspective. A fusion of strategies allows for individual differences in interest, ability and agenda.

## REFLECTION, EVALUATION AND MODIFICATION

Finally, teachers must be given the opportunity and the responsibility to reflect upon the materials they are using. The society should accord to them the trust to modify the

curriculum and to assess the role which their individual teaching style and interpretation of materials (omissions and amplifications) have on their own learning and teaching, and on the students in their care. Eternal vigilance, constant reflection, acceptance of uncertainty and the willingness to risk are the basic tools required as developers invest in the future. It is only by accepting to live in an atmosphere of uncertainty that educators can open up new dimensions for learning and promote relevant, challenging programmes of study.

#### CONCLUSION

The process of creating a media course for a crosscultural context destroyed the illusion that the task of curriculum development is precise, objective and predictable. The thesis provided the opportunity to discuss the complexity of the task of analyzing subjects and contexts, choosing goals and objectives, evaluating learning theories, appraising a variety of teaching styles and interpretations of curricula, and selecting content. Acceptance of uncertainty and risk, a dynamic, sceptical outlook, and a view of knowledge that is socially negotiated formed the key attitudinal and intellectual procedures that directed the course. In the final analysis, classroom learning occurs during the complex interaction between the teacher, the student and the society, and this is particularly true of media studies. The curriculum

itself is a vast, inclusive springboard which provides all three participants with the resources for effective pedagogy.

The media studies course evolved in a spiral pattern, beginning with the basic goal of preparing teachers to relate media, traditional and contemporary, to their ongoing teaching and learning experiences. The thesis allowed an analysis of the process of evolution, taking into account the strategies used to make choices of content, methodology and implementation procedures. The use of curriculum models suggested that the creation of curricula involves diverse perspectives to guide those decisions. In this respect, the thesis was able to substantiate the many decisions required in the development of the course.

## ENDNOTES

1. Media science has been variously termed media education, media literacy, and media studies. Each one of these terms has as its central focus the empowerment of the media student in the areas of analysis, assessment and production of media products in their particular environment. These products variously might include print, still and motion projected and non-projected pictures, audio, television/videos, advertising media and computers. All four terms will be used in this thesis.

2. This course is to be included in the programme of study for a B.Ed. degree in Early Childhood Education to be launched in March 1995 at the University of Zimbabwe, under the auspices of a CIDA funded linkage between Concordia University and the University of Zimbabwe.

3. This article provided much of the direction that the development of the course would take by providing a pedagogical context and rationale for media studies in teacher training programmes.

Vukadinovic, G.Z. (1986). A curriculum in media education for teacher training courses. Educational Media International. 24. 34-47.

4. A wealth of other resources on curriculum development were referred to in addition to those mentioned in the paper: Eisner, 1991; Holmes & McLean, 1989; Hooper, 1971; Lippett, 1966; Marra & Jonassen, 1993; Pratt, 1994; Strommen & Lincoln, 1992; Tanner, 1992.

5. The number of references available on media influence and impact is enormous. A small sampling points out the large differences in viewpoints on the ability of and the degree to which media construct meaning and can affect behaviour. (Aulehla, 1990; Baldassarre, 1990; Boeckmann, 1985; Broudy, 1988; Brunner, 1992; Colle, 1986; Curtiss, 1988; Dwyer, 1988; Fosnot, 1985; Galliani, 1990; Genin, 1992; Golomb, 1992; Haley, 1992; Hanson, 1988; Harrison, 1990; Henry, 1992; Kantner & Hoffman, 1992; Krucsay & Zuna-Kratky, 1990; Kuby, Aldridge & Snyder, 1994; Lacy, 1986; Magnusdottir, 1990; Masterman, 1993; McLuhan, 1977; Miller, 1993; Neuman & Roskos, 1993; Nolker & Tyner, 1991; Petterssen, 1989; Pettersson & Forlag, 1988; Phillips, 1991; Roe, 1987; Rubenstein, 1983; Sekula, 1984; Sinatra, Beaudry, Guastello & Stahl-Gemake, 1988; Singer & Singer, 1983; Strommen & Lincoln, 1992; Suhor & Little, 1988; Vukadinovic, 1986; Walden, 1990; Whiteside & Whiteside)

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APPENDIX A



## COURSE DESCRIPTION FOR MEDIA SCIENCE COURSE ECE105

**LEVEL:** Undergraduate

### GENERAL SCOPE

This course covers the pedagogical rationale of media in early childhood education, and the psychological effect and impact of media on children's growth and development.

### AIMS

The course intends to

1. Examine the scope and meaning of media.
2. Examine the psychological principles which guide the design and use of media for educational purposes in early childhood.
3. Examine the role of media in the culture, in their informative, social, entertainment and educational functions.
4. To assist teachers in acquiring a critical response towards, and understanding of, media messages.

### CONTENT

- |                |   |   |
|----------------|---|---|
| <b>4 hours</b> | A | 1. Defining media and media studies.  |
|                |   | 2. Rationalization for media in the classroom.  |
|                |   | 3. Psychological, philosophical and sociological implications of media.                     |
|                |   | 4. Problems associated with imported media in education.                                    |
|                |   | 5. Meaning of text, genre, conventions in media.  |
| <b>4 hours</b> | B | 1. Theories of developmental characteristics of the child 3-8 years of age.                 |
|                |   | 2. Curricular implications of these developmental characteristics.                          |
|                |   | 3. How do children learn according to these theories?                                       |
|                |   | 4. The central role of play in learning.  |
| <b>8 hours</b> | C | 1. History of visuals and their effects.  |
|                |   | 2. Principles of visual literacy.   |
|                |   | 3. Definitions of concepts used in visual literacy: colour, depth, angle, texture, framing. |
|                |   | 4. Meaning and use of content analysis.   |
|                |   | 5. Problems in the use of media in cross-cultural settings.                                 |

- D 1. Analysis of media products for classroom purposes based on our knowledge of how children learn.
- 16 hours** 2. Assessment of products.  
3. Construction of media.

**APPROACH**

Discussion, readings, analysis of various media, presentations and practicals.

APPENDIX B

## LESSON PLANS FOR MEDIA SCIENCE COURSE

### A Introduction--Theoretical Rationale

A working definition of media science in education

Meaning and communication in media.

Rationalization for media in the classroom

Concepts and skills in media--deconstruction & image analysis.

Media and literacy

Sociological implications of media.

Philosophical meaning of media.

Meaning of (a) text, (b) conventions  
(c) genres in media.

What roles do media play in the society?

What problems might be associated with media education?

### PROCEDURE:

Define media, media in education, and describe the role of media in literacy

Explore the role of education and communication

Instigate a discussion of man's ways of acquiring, sharing and communicating information, how media construct reality and the limitations that media have in communicating objective, simultaneous, unambiguous meaning.

Give the ten commandments of media education and discuss each in turn. (**Educommunication News**, #21, January, 1992, p.4-5).

Discuss the peculiar meanings of text, conventions and genres in media making references to educational technology.

Do exercise 1, p.12 in Pettersson

**RESOURCES:** "Human Information Processing and the Audio-visual Approach to Educational Technology", in **The Psychology of Educational Technology and Instructional Media**, New York, Routledge, 1988, Ken Spencer.

Chapter 5, THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OUR SENSES AND HOW WE LEARN AND REMEMBER: INFORMATION THEORY & HUMAN INFORMATION PROCESSING THEORIES.

"Media Education Symposium" in **Educommunication News**, #21, January, 1992.

pp.4-5, ENCAPSULATES WHAT MEDIA EDUCATION IS AND IS NOT, THE UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES OF MEDIA EDUCATION, AND WHAT THE SYLLABUS SHOULD INCLUDE.

**Visuals for Information:Research and Practice**, Rune Pettersson, Educational Technology Publications, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1989. Introduction, p.xi,

Chapter 1, THE SCOPE OF MEDIA STUDIES--COMMUNICATION, pp.1-14

"Pictorial Conventions in Development Communication in Developing Countries", Royal Colle, **Media in Education and Development**, December 1986.

GRAPHIC EXAMPLES OF CONVENTIONS WHICH REQUIRE CLARIFICATION IN CROSS-CULTURAL SETTINGS.

"Media Education--a call for a change in teaching", K. Boeckmann in **Journal of Educational Television**, 11 1, 1985, pp.7-13

THE ROLE OF MASS MEDIA IN SOCIETY AND IMPLICATIONS ON TEACHING.

"The Role of the Media in Literacy Work" ED/ILY/88-14/MEDIA, December 1988.

THE ROLE OF MEDIA IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES TO INCREASE LITERACY RATES

from "Theory and Practice of Literacy Work: policies, strategies and examples", by Ali Hamadache and Daniel Martin

"Media Literacy: An Educational Basic for the Information Age" **Education and Urban Society**, 24, 4, August 1992 489-497

THE ROLE OF MASS MEDIA IN THE SOCIETY, IN SHAPING EXPECTATIONS, PROVIDING ROLE MODELS, GIVING INFORMATION, ORGANIZING IDEAS AND INFORMATION, AND CREATING AND SHAPING ATTITUDES AND VALUES.

**Media Education, UNESCO, 1984, Gerear Berger: Fribourg: Media education from primary through secondary school**

STRESSES THE NEED FOR MEDIA ANALYSIS, DECONSTRUCTION, CRITICAL ATTITUDE AND LITERACY

## **B Characteristics of Early Childhood--Theories of Development and Curricular Implications**

How do children learn?"

What theories of development guide classroom practices?"

How do we design curriculum, what instructional models do we use?"

What are the guidelines for sequencing?"

What classroom practices are essential and why?"

The central role of play.

### **PROCEDURE.**

Describe the dimensions of development and how they are illustrated in the videotape

Discuss planning units, goals and an integrated curriculum based on the characteristics of development described in the various theories

Stress the central role of play and manipulation in these theories. Establish the relationship between media education and the curriculum by pointing out the plethora of media influences on the child prior to formal education, (N.B. environmental print) referring to specific readings as testimony

**MATERIALS:** Videotape--**A Harmony of Dimensions--A COMPREHENSIVE AND MULTIDIMENSIONAL ANALYSIS OF CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PRE-SCHOOL CHILD.**

**READINGS:** **A Practical Guide to Early Childhood Curriculum**, Claudia Ehason and Lois Jenkins, The C.V. Mosby Company, St. Louis, 1981.  
PLANNED UNITS--p. 28-35.

**Designing Curriculum for Early Childhood**, Helen Robinson and Sydney Schwartz, Allyn & Bacon, Boston, 1982.  
CURRICULUM GOALS--pp.20-22  
CLASSES OF CONTENT-P. 35  
HOLISTIC CURRICULUM--p.40, 41  
SEQUENCING--pp.68-73  
LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT--INSTRUCTIONAL MODELS , GOALS & ACTIVITIES--PP.240-244

**Foundations of Early Childhood Education**, Spodek, Saracho, Davis, 1991,  
DEVELOPMENTAL THEORIES & THEORISTS, NATURE AND NURTURE IN CHILDREN'S DEVELOPMENT, AND DEVELOPMENTAL AREAS, pp 74-92  
BEGINNING READING: PICTURES, SIGNS, AND SYMBOLS--pp.255-258

**Educationally Appropriate Kindergarten Practices**, Bernard Spodek, (ed) NEA Professional Library, 1991.  
Chapter 2, "Match Early Childhood Education Practices to How Children Learn", pp 13-34,  
Chapter 3, "Create a Classroom Environment that Facilitates Learning and Development", pp.35-50;  
Chapter 4, "Continuity of Child Development and the Implications for Teaching Practice", pp.51-55;  
Chapter 6, "Ongoing Evaluation as a Factor in Decision Making and Curriculum Development", pp.65-76;  
Chapter 7, "Conclusion"--pp.77-78

"Introducing Media Education into Primary and Secondary Schools", Sally Brown and Paula Visocchi, Hurdles and Incentives, p. 38-50, Appendix A

**Early Childhood Teacher Preparation**, Bernard Spodek and Olivia Saracho, N.Y. Columbia, 1990,  
CURRICULUM ISSUES AND TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS, pp. 202-203

**Early Education in the Public Schools: Lessons from a Comprehensive Birth to Kindergarten  
Program**, Penny Hauser-Cram, Donald Pierson, Deborah Walker and Terrence Tivnan, 1991,  
FOUR PRINCIPLES OF CHILD DEVELOPMENT--IMPLICATIONS FOR CURRICULUM  
DEVELOPMENT, pp.90-98

"Programs for Preschoolers: Starting out Young", Stephen Kimmel in **Creative Computing**, October  
1981, pp.44-53

"Image Education in the Italian Primary School", Luciano Galliani in **EMI**, 28,2.  
HOW EDUCATION IN "STRATEGIES OF COMMUNICATION" SHOULD BE TAUGHT  
IN SCHOOLS, PP.82-90

"An Endeavour of the Heart, Phyllis Goldsmithin **Canadian Children**,  
CHOICES, SELF-DIRECTION AND PLAY IN CHILD-CENTRED LEARNING.

Basic Educational Goals, PSBGM philosophy

### C Print Image Construction and Visual Literacy

#### Graphic Organizers

Using visuals to extend meaning to print materials

#### Punctum and Intent

Framing (a) photographs

(b) advertising

(c) wood frame

#### Titles

Advertising--content analysis

Using visual cues--colour, direction, depth, motion, variance in size, overlapping, light, form, balance, texture, camera angle, close-up, focus

### PROCEDURE:

Discuss the history of visuals, from Comenius to the printing press, to illustrating literature with the purpose of extending meaning in content areas--expanding communication by adding the visual senses to verbal.

Give the principles of visual literacy theory as presented by Reynold-Meyers in Pettersson, p.146.

Discuss the variations in advertising in overheads # 6, 7, 8, and 9, and have students compare them with environmental print and other forms of advertising, e.g. television.

Do the framing and titling exercises from the exercise sheet provided

Do relevant exercises to illustrate punctum and intent, using overheads # 28 & 29.

Give definitions of what is meant by colour, angle, depth, texture etc. in photography using the overheads #2, 24, 30, 31, 38, 39 and 40 as graphic examples of their use

Do a unit on advertising, beginning with a popular magazine and doing content analysis on an area of interest to students, e.g. race, gender, age or disability.

See exercises following to increase awareness of advertising.

Give definitions and examples of "visual cues" listed above, followed by the exercise sheet provided.

### REFERENCES:

Curtiss, Deborah "Deconstructing Visual Statements to Improve Written and Oral Expression" **Reading Psychology: An International Quarterly**. 9, 1988, pp.485-498.

Nolker, Page & Kathleen Tyner, "Teacher's Guide for Photographic Discourse A Strategies for Media Literacy Guide for Understanding Photographs, **Strategies**.4, 2, 1991, pp.1-7.

Sekula, Allan, **Photography Against the Grain**. The Press of the Nova Scotia College of Art and Design, 1984.

Sinatra, Richard, Jeffery Beaudry, Francine Guastello & Josephine Stahl-Gemake. "Examining the Use of Photo Essays On Students' Writing Ability" **Reading Psychology: An International Quarterly**.9, 1988. pp.399-408.

Walden, Kim Louise "Photo-media Studies in a Primary School: Looking through the Family Album" **Journal of Art & Design Education**. 9, 2, 1990. pp.131-145.



## UNDERSTANDING IMAGE CONSTRUCTIONS: FRAMING

**Objective:** To help foster an understanding of the construction of images in media.

**Strategy and Rationale:** Media images can convey emotions in subjects through the use of colour, framing, props, costumes, etc. Framing involves deciding what to include and exclude in a picture. By positioning students within a picture frame and providing alternative backdrops, they can create their own media images, and understand the reasoning behind their constructions.

**Materials:** Students are grouped (4). Provide each group with a frame, preferably wood, and several sheets of posterboard, in different colours. Additional materials should include stuffed animals, cereal boxes, and other various "household props".

**Activity:** Two students hold the frame; one student selects the props, and the fourth stands behind the frame. The remainder of the class is asked to identify and emotion they want portrayed within the frame e.g. sadness, happiness, anger, embarrassment. The teachers seeks consensus on (1) which colour best complements the emotion or clashes with is. (Ask why they chose the colours they did, and what does changing the background colour do to the image/emotion projected. (2) what type of prop might accompany a "happy" subject. To simulate advertising, the background colours for various products can be changed, stimulating a discussion on why advertisers might choose a particular colour linked with a particular product. The frame can be used to show how the message of a subject can be changed by different framing, such as off centre, or head cut off by the top of the frame.

(Spinoff learning skills for the early childhood learner: the reinforcement or learning of colours, and increased media vocabulary.)

## UNDERSTANDING IMAGE CONSTRUCTIONS: PHOTOGRAPHS

We read pictures very quickly. We learn to read them. When photography first appeared, pictures were seen as "flat". People demanded stereographs to add the depth, to make them more real. We have learned to 'read' the depth into photographs now.

**Identifying aesthetic elements** - aesthetics include contrasts of light and dark, colour, composition, shapes, figures and stasis.

**Punctum.** What are the arresting elements? What do they 'say' to the viewer? The focal point is the site of the photograph which attracts the eye by some special effect such as light, colour, composition and stasis. The focal point can be a subject which is in the centre of the frame, but there can be more than one focal point to provide eye-catching details elsewhere in the photograph. Then, again, is there always a focalpoint? These details may raise problems and disjunctions.

**Intent** Intent is sometimes revealed through a title (e.g. Peace in the heart of the storm, Lewis Hine, 1910), through knowledge of the photographer's life and work, through the emotion it evokes, and through the focal points identified.

**CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES:** Take the series of photographs provided, and discuss the constructions utilized by the photographer, identifying his intent, if possible.

Photographs to use: **The Organ Grinder** by W.R. MacAskill  
**Excitement** by Frank Sutcliffe  
**Karantose Jacobs and his Mother Mona** by Greg Staats  
**Image 4**, photos by Mr Kwesi Brew, NFB

Frame **THE ORGAN GRINDER** differently to illustrate how framing and title can prejudice intent

Put a title on each of the untitled photos, and explain your choice.

## **ANALYSING PHOTOGRAPHS: Classroom exercises**

Analyse the use of the following elements to effect specific meanings to the photographs. Try to cryptically describe the meaning.

- (a) light
- (b) form & balance
- (c) texture
- (d) camera angle
- (e) close-up
- (f) movement
- (g) focus
- (h) colour

What is the effect of images that appear larger or smaller than actual size?

Ambiguity of spatial relations arouses curiosity....a tension is created between the accurate record one expects, and the unexpected dimensions and relationships depicted.

Use the elements above to choose photographs which will provide extended meaning to a poem and a short story

## **UNDERSTANDING IMAGE CONSTRUCTIONS: Advertising**

Print and other media function as businesses which sell advertising to targeted audiences. The audiences must learn discriminating consumer skills--how to separate seductive advertising from content, i.e. content analysis, a research tool which helps analyse media messages by counting the number of times a very specific variable appears in a random segment of media content.

### **CLASSROOM EXERCISES:**

1. Look for an advertisement which targets (appeals to a specific audience).
2. Using two magazines, count the number of ads in the first ten pages. Calculate the percentage of ads to content. Compare the two percentages, and try to explain the differences, if any.
3. Using the worksheet below, count the number of ads in fifteen minutes of television or radio

Time	Program	% of Ads	Medium	Product	Target & Why
------	---------	----------	--------	---------	--------------

4. Select a dramatic show. How many times was music used, and how was the music used. For example, was it used to give a sense of locale? to create or support pace or movement? to create a mood?
5. Describe the sounds--music or voice--used in a commercial. Describe in detail what kinds of audio were used: how much music, how it was used, special sound effects?

## **CROSS-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE ON MEDIA USE--IMPLICATIONS FOR CURRICULUM**

Ajayi-Dopemu "Educating through Television in Nigeria" **Journal of Educational Television** 11, 2, 1985, pp.115-122.

Ajayi Dopemu "Visual Aids and the Enhancement of Communication in Africa" **Journal of Educational Television**, 8, 3, 1992, pp.203-209.

Baldassarre, Vito Antonio "Television and Didactics: From Cultural Alphabetization to the Outline of a Curriculum" **Educational Media International**, 28, 4, pp 100-105

Brown, Ian "A Cross-Cultural Comparison of Children's Drawing Development" **Visual Arts Research**, 1992, pp.15-20

Colle, Royal "Pictorial Conventions in Development Communication in Developing Countries" **Media in Education and Development** December, 1986, pp.159-163.

Domatob, Jerry Komia "Introducing Media Education into Sub-Saharan Africa" **Educational Media International**. 28, 2, pp.91-97.

Hampton, Janie "Play and development in rural Zimbabwean children" **Early Child Development and Care**. 47, 1, 1989, pp.1-61.

Hungwe, Kedmon "Culturally Appropriate Media and technology. A Perspective from Zimbabwe" **Tech Trends**. 34, 1, 1989, pp.22-23.

Liddell, Christine & Pauline Masilela "Utilization of Preschool Education Programmes on Radio and Television--Black South African Children in Urban and Peri-urban Areas" **RTV**. 1, 4, 1988, pp 20-26

Moja, Teboho, "Teacher Education from Classroom Broadcasts for the New South Africa" **Educational Media International**. 29, 3, 1992, pp.171-174.

Okoh, Nduka & Cosy Barikor. "The media and opportunities for development education in Nigeria" **Media in Education and Development**. December, 1986, pp.147-149

Richmond, Edmun B. "Language-by-radio in Sub-Saharan Africa: Four Case Studies" **NALLD Journal** Winter 1982, pp.20-26.

Roe, Robert C. "Traditional Media and Indigenous Culture: "Rethinking Developmental Relationships" Department of Communication, Cornell University, Ithaca, 1987.

**SECTION TWO: ANALYSIS, ASSESSMENT AND  
CONSTRUCTION OF MEDIA PRODUCTS: TEXTBOOKS,  
NEWSPAPERS, MAGAZINES, ENVIRONMENTAL PRINT & BILLBOARD  
ADVERTISING**

**E Audio-visuals--audio cassettes, film strips, slides**

1. Listen to audio cassettes--assess
  - (a) appropriateness to age level,
  - (b) skills analysis--content
  - (c) skills analysis--form, i.e. repetition, level of complexity, salience, variety
2. Create an audio-cassette recording for the reinforcement a specific concept which you explain on the cassette.
3. Look at the list of auditory and visual skills which the ECE can assist the child to develop. Select one to enhance with the use of a filmstrip.
4. Select a filmstrip and decide what skill it alleges or does reinforce, aside from content--i.e. straight information
5. Slides and filmstrips--why use them?
6. Radio

**D Videos--**

ZIMBABWE PRE-SCHOOL  
CHIPO MARIRA'S TAPES  
NEW KINDERGARTEN  
LANGUAGE AND LITERACY  
PRESCHOOL POWER! JACKET FLIPS AND OTHER TIPS  
THE DAILY ROUTINE

**Computers--**

Assessing software, using LOGO  
COUNTING ON COMPUTERS  
COMPUTER LEARNING FOR YOUNG CHILDREN

**Television--**

Assessing the texts and forms--conventions as used in photographs and audio texts, e.g. zoom vs close-up  
PICKET FENCES (Dramatization of the TV violence debate)  
HELPING CHILDREN DEAL WITH TV

**CONCLUSION:**

TEACHERS PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENT'S MEDIA USE--TIME AND COMPETENCY  
USE OF MEDIA IN THE CLASSROOM--EDUCATIONAL POTENTIAL  
WHAT IS IMPORTANT FOR STUDENTS TO UNDERSTAND ABOUT MASS MEDIA

## TRANSPARENCIES:

1. Graphic Organizer
2. "Rinso", **National Geographic**, 1986
3. Supermarket advertising from Zimbabwe newspapers
4. Orbis Sensualium Pictus, from Comenius
5. "Enough is Enough", seatbelt sign
6. Advertisement for skin cream from **Parade** Magazine, July 1992.
7. Sun Jam advertisement from **Parade** Magazine, July 1992
8. Surf advertisement from **Parade** magazine, June, 1994 p.60
9. Berkeley advertisement from **Horizon** magazine, August, 1992.
10. Training Perception, Figure Ground,
11. Figure Ground--dog-telephone, duck-rabbit
12. Mobius strip, Escher
13. Staircase, "
14. Illusion, from Anne Duncan, "Decoding Imagery: A Cultural Perspective" p.8, p.12.
15. Annie Duncan **Op.cit.**, p.8, p.10
16. Soldier and captives
17. "Faces"
18. Range of Pictorial Experience from "Pictorial conventions in development communication in developing countries", Royal Colle, **Media in Education and Development**, December 1986, p.159.
19. Royal Colle, p.160
20. ", p.161
21. ", p.162
22. Duncan, **Op.cit.**, p.16
23. Advertising insert for corticosteroid medications for asthma--Glaxo Company, Inc.
24. Aerial Photograph, Ira Martin, **Reading Photographs**, #46
25. Cartier-Bresson, Henri "Behind the Gare Saint-Lazare", Paris, 1932, Partheon Books, New York.
26. Motion, **Photography Against the Grain**, Allan Sekula, The Press of the Nova Scotia College of Art and Design, p.123.
27. Motorcycles, Danny Lyon, **Reading Photographs**, #43
28. Kerotose Jacobs and his Mother,
29. The Organ Grinder
30. The Abbatoir, **Photography Against the Grain**, p.242.
31. " in colour
32. **Africa Today**
33. **Horizon** Magazine, August 1993 p.7
34. Arnheim Land Aboriginal, **National Geographic Magazine**, 1986
35. Media education in the primary school. p.i3.
36. **Ibid.**
37. Zimbabwe news photo, May 1994.
38. Snow geese, **National Geographic Magazine**, November 1984.

39. Elephant meat, " " , November 1980 p. 596, 597.
40. Elephants...aerial " " , " " , p. 576, 577.
41. Africa map
42. Sesame Street and literacy **Educational Television** p.210.
43. **Ibid.** p.211.
44. "The Changing Face of South Africa" **The Globe and Mail**, April 23, 1994, p.1
45. "Telecommunications and Culture 17th May 1994", Harare
46. "Layering and Separation"
47. Abraham Lincoln
48. Stereo Illustrations

## APPENDIX C



*SURVEY/ASSESSMENT OF WORKSHOP: Circle the letter of the answer which you feel best describes this workshop.*

- 1. I consider the workshop to have been*
  - (a) very useful*
  - (b) useful*
  - (c) no opinion*
  - (d) not very useful*
  - (e) wasteful of time and resources*

*IF YOU ANSWERED (c) TO THE PREVIOUS QUESTION, YOU ARE EXEMPT FROM ANSWERING ANY OTHER QUESTIONS*

- 2. The meaning of media is now*
  - (a) very clear*
  - (b) clear*
  - (c) the same as before*
  - (d) unclear*
  - (e) very unclear*
- 3. The role of media in Zimbabwe is now*
  - (a) very clear*
  - (b) clear*
  - (c) the same as before*
  - (d) unclear*
  - (e) very unclear*
- 4. The role of media in the classroom is now*
  - (a) very clear*
  - (b) clear*
  - (c) the same as before*
  - (d) unclear*
  - (e) very unclear*
- 5. The print materials were*
  - (a) very informative*
  - (b) informative*
  - (c) not very informative*
  - (d) not informative at all*
  - (e) totally irrelevant*

6. *The hands-on exercises were*
- (a) very informative and helpful to understand the concepts*
  - (b) informative and helpful to understand the concepts*
  - (c) not very useful*
  - (d) not very relevant to the concepts*
  - (e) totally irrelevant to the concepts*
7. *The visual materials were*
- (a) very interesting and informative*
  - (b) interesting and informative*
  - (c) not useful*
  - (d) not clear or not informative*
  - (e) very confused and uninformative*
8. *The explanations of the workshop coordinator were*
- (a) very clear and informative*
  - (b) clear and informative*
  - (c) not useful*
  - (d) not clear or informative*
  - (e) confused and uninformative*
9. *My general impression of the materials presented is that they would be*
- (a) very useful and relevant for Zimbabwe teachers*
  - (b) useful and relevant for Zimbabwe teachers*
  - (c) not useful*
  - (d) irrelevant for Zimbabwe teachers*
  - (e) wasteful of time, money and human resources*
10. *Media education for Zimbabwe to me is*
- (a) very necessary*
  - (b) necessary*
  - (c) somewhat interesting but not essential*
  - (d) not at all important*
  - (e) of no present or future importance*

**PLEASE WRITE IN ANY OTHER COMMENTS YOU HAVE WHICH WILL AID THE UZ AND CONCORDIA UNIVERSITIES TO REVISE AND REVAMP THE COURSE METHODOLOGY AND CONTENT.**

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**Thank you for your cooperation!!**

APPENDIX D

SUMMARY OF WORKSHOP WITH ED TECH DIPLOMA STUDENTS, APRIL 28TH,  
1994

I began with a theoretical discussion and an operant definition of media as comprised of those things which intervene between the object and the receiver. Explanation of text, audience, and production. As an example of images being constructed, I showed "The changing face of South Africa"--students were highly interested in the technology involved in such construction, which Dr. John Rwambira illuminated.

Videotape of filmloop "Predicting from closeups" stimulated discussion which revealed many culturally biased objects in the film which would not be familiar to some rural children, e.g. comb, toothbrush and the particular style of radio.

Use of Kerotose Jacobs' picture to discuss punctum and intent revealed that IT WAS NOT CLEAR to the students that it expresses cultural conflict as is evident to western viewers. Figure-ground transparencies showed that some students were able to "read" better than others. The same was true of aerial shots, where some could not "read" elephants (with which they were familiar). Some saw termites, while others saw an orchard. In the Zimbabwe meat picture, in spite of the use of colour and the local context, it was not read. There was a great deal of discussion on the background to what was happening in the picture, rather than the intent and message of the photographer. In this case, the use of a local context

may have interfered with the ability to correctly read, rather than enhance the comprehensibility of the image.

Other transparencies discussed were the "Faces", where students focussed more on the disparities in the size of the head between #1 and #6, than finer differences, and they gave these pictures varying interpretations, e.g. very sad. They, therefore, saw these two faces as quite different. But, they did agree that the extra hair on #6 certainly did not change the message.

"Sun Jam" was shown to illustrate the difference between simple product advertising and the use of a contiguous image to transfer an advertising message from the irrelevant image to the product advertised.

RE: Storyboarding--the example of cutting, cropping and deleting in this overhead demonstrated clearly how a photographer can use these techniques to create a specific message.

"The Organ Grinder" gave them exercises in framing to create different messages--an activity they seemed to enjoy immensely. It appeared that they were able to create some humorous, culturally specific messages with some frames. They were impressed with the power of the frame to define a message.

I distributed guidelines for assessing software and a page from a software catalogue to see if the information in a catalogue description is adequate to make appropriate choices.

The students viewed a few minutes of a Concordia developed videotape to use in distance education. Some of the technical features which are used to enhance visual readability were pointed out.

Finally, students were given a camera and a list of skills which develop during early childhood and asked to create a visual aid which would assist in the learning or reinforcement of the skill.

PARTICIPANT COMMENTS ON MEDIA SCIENCE WORKSHOP HELD AT THE  
UNIVERSITY OF ZIMBABWE--MAY 12, 1994:

#1. More practical work is very helpful and this helps to clear a lot of misconceptions that one might have.

#2. I think that more people should be exposed to this information, and also the duration of the course should be longer than what it was, because I feel that the coordinator had a lot to share with the participants, and there was the element of "chasing time."

#3. (i) There is need for the UZ to help teachers become resourceful and creative in finding and using the simplest but relevant and meaningful media.

(ii) Train teachers to be sensitive to experiences of children and cultural backgrounds in the choice of media.

(iii) More conscientization workshops and seminars on the usefulness of media in teaching.

(iv) The UZ and Concordia help Zimbabwe produce simple and relevant appropriate media kits for basic concepts in the infant EC programs.

#4. If the two universities could through allocation of more time for the workshop concentrate on the production of media

in various ways, this would give the participants more content for their teaching profession.

#5, It would be helpful if this course would be introduced under another course so that most of the students could be exposed to the useful information. If possible, let the course be continuous and not be given just as a single dose. This course could also be introduced on its own. It is useful for teachers who may not understand media and how it functions and differs.

#6. Zimbabwean teachers need a lot of training in operating such things as videos and cameras and tape recorders. There is need to emphasize media education at college level and run courses at regional and district level. It needs to be offered as one of the courses at university level.

#7. Give more information to the students so as to get them to know what is involved in the course of media science. This must be done when students are invited to attend the course so that they understand what is involved. More could attend than today's course attendance. It was a good experience for me to have been involved.



#8. I wish the materials could be made more relevant to Zimbabwean culture. More videos showing Zimbabwean experiences in learning centres are very necessary.

#9. The media should relate to the different cultural and background contexts in Zimbabwe.